The Nation.

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The Week.

The Beef Trust has no friends. Next to the Standard Oil, it is probably the most cordially disliked monopoly, and the one safest to attack politically, in this country. The fact, however, that the packers are so justly held in disrepute should not be used as a warrant for doing them injustice, or, in order to punish them, for establishing a pernicious principle of government. The report of the President's investigators must be accepted as uncovering very bad conditions in some of the packing-houses. It does not, to be sure, include the more scandalous charges which have been bruited about. To those, Messrs. Neill and Reynolds did not choose to put their names; they were apparently willing to leave that field to imaginative writers. But what they do certify to is repellent enough. The lack of sanitary appliances in the packing-houses, the disregard of the health and comfort of the employees, the careless and confused and dirty ways of handling food-products, with the inadequacy of the present methods of inspection, are shown with shocking concreteness and detail. The President truly describes the picture as revolting. But to jump from that to putting the United States in charge of the packing-houses is to cover a tremendous distance with an agile *non-sequitur*. The beef report makes out an excellent case for rigid inspection and control by the State of Illinois or the city of Chicago, but what has the national Government to do with local exercise of the police power? Other States and municipalities are all the while attacking as grave abuses in factories and sweat-shops. The list of laws for the State inspection of workshops and manufactories is growing every year. Consumers' Leagues are pressing this fight for health of workers and soundness of product in a thousand localities. In cities all over the land the Health Departments are exerting themselves to remedy the very sort of hygienic and moral outrage detailed in the beef report. Why should the President propose to make an exception of Illinois and Chicago, telling them, in effect, that they need not clean up their own filthy premises since he means to step in and do it for them? We will say nothing now of the propriety of his acting on ex-parte exposure by Government officials as if the packers had been tried by jury and convicted.

Another rebate case, in which the Government won, on Thursday, involved the Milwaukee Refrigerator Transit Company and half-a-dozen railways. The Refrigerator Company held transportation contracts from the Pabst Brewing Company and other producers, whereby it controlled shipments to competitive points. It withheld shipments from railways which refused to turn over to it from an eighth to a tenth of the freight money, and gave the traffic only to the railways which yielded. In other words, the Refrigerator Company bludgeoned the railways into granting rebates. The transactions were still further complicated by the fact that a majority of the refrigerator stock was owned by stockholders in the Pabst Company; but the Pabst Company could not be held as party to the illegal contract between the Refrigerator Company and the railways. The finding of the court against the defendant was obtained, of course, under a law which was a dead-letter until President Roosevelt began to push the enforcement as part of his campaign for a Rate bill. The new law, which is still in the conference committee of the two houses, will—if the promises of its sponsors be fulfilled—make it still easier to obtain convictions.

The Gaines campaign-publicity bill, reported by a House committee, instead of taking a middle ground between the more and less radical measures proposed, goes further than any of them. It is almost startlingly sweeping in its application to the election of all officials of whatever sort chosen at the same time as Presidential electors or Representatives, and also in its prohibition of political contributions not made to organized political committees. We know from the experience of various States that corrupt-practices acts designed to "bear lightly" on candidates and campaign managers have usually failed absolutely in their purpose. The Gaines bill, if constitutional, would prevent two of the most obvious methods of evasion. It would not be possible, for example, for a corporation, instead of giving $50,000 outright to the National Committee, to send a thousand-dollar check to the candidates for Dairy and Food Commissioners in every State, thus escaping publicity because it was not using money in the national campaign. Furthermore, it would be illegal to employ private individual disbursing agents.

Standpattism is daily mounting to new heights of unreason, resembling mania. Like the defenders of slavery just before the war, protectionists are making a religion of their practice, and every man who dissents from it is an infidel and a heathen. In that spirit, Secretary Shaw on Saturday denounced Gov. Cummins of Iowa for daring to say that a single Dingley schedule might be revised. The whole tariff has now become sacred. Any rash Uzzah who dares to lay a hand upon it may expect to fall dead. But Mr. Shaw's proof of the inviolate nature of the tariff was bizarre. He appealed to the President as a sort of high priest of protection. Not once since his election in 1904, solemnly averred the Secretary, has Mr. Roosevelt lisped a syllable about tariff revision. The inference is that any Republican who does is no better than a traitor. In fact, Secretary Shaw plainly drew it in the case of Gov. Cummins, whom he accused of being really a Democrat, and read out of the party. By the same token, Gov. Guild of Massachusetts will have to go, and along with him two-thirds of the Republicans in that State. But we do not know what Mr. Shaw would have said if some one in the audience had challenged him about President Roosevelt's tariff-revision speeches of 1902, and his suppressed tariff-reform message of 1904. To be consistent, he would have had to admit that the Republican President, like the Republican Governor of Iowa, was indulging in "repudiation of the Republican policy of protection." With the very high-priest a heretic, Shaw's isolation in tariff orthodoxy is truly splendid.

Secretary Shaw's Philippine parable, delivered before the graduating class of the Kentucky Wesleyan College on May 30, was in his best vein.

> "I have," said he, "a neighbor that has caused me trouble for years. . . . I settle the disturbance, but when I come back I have a little baby in my arms. . . . To keep and educate him seems the only thing to do; . . . but the first time I take him he begins to yell and kick and squall and bite. Spank! spank! spank! The little fellow is well satisfied now. The other day when I recalled his nurse, Judge Taft, he looked up and cried."

Our only complaint is that the Secretary does not carry on the parable. He does not tell, for instance, how the nurse's plea that the little boy be allowed to have a garden of his own and sell his radishes and green peas to the family (removal of the tariff), has been disregarded, nor how his adopted parent has planned to devote several of his weekly pennies to putting new gravel walks through the little boy's garden (subsidized railways), nor, finally, how the good of the family compels him, after a little while, to pay the hired man high rent for a wheelbarrow which the next-door neighbor would let him have for a song (coastwise shipping laws). If this is what Mr. Shaw means by "helping" our adopted baby, which, he says, our

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people will do "so long as they have red corpuscles in their blood," then we must consider the Secretary's parable less apt than one we have heard before. It is that of the compassionate elephant, which, taking pity upon a nestful of young birds abandoned by their parents in the jungle, sat down on the nest to keep them warm.

Our nursling republic of Panama is making more trouble. The group that got themselves into power through a pretended revolution, found that they themselves were endangered by a revolution, and called upon their great and good friend at Washington to save them. Of course, the President could not have revolutions going on in his own little revolution-proof republic of Panama, and the would-be revolutionists were so informed. Thereupon they proposed to out-vote the oligarchs in the coming elections. This was a terrible prospect, and the opéra-bouffe officials in Panama immediately appealed to the United States to intervene to prevent what they called "daringly illegal" voting. They themselves confess that they have no power to enforce the laws or do anything but cry aloud to President Roosevelt. Apparently, their prayer has been heard, and our reinforcement of 600 marines will presumably act as election-inspectors—a novel duty, certainly. Secretary Taft feels free to intervene, on the ground that electoral disturbances will interfere with digging the canal. By the same token, he might intervene to prevent the Senate debate on the type of canal that is to be dug.

What threatened to become a serious international row has been settled by the appearance of Mexican troops at Cananea, and the prompt coöperation of United States and Mexican authorities. By contrast with the Cripple Creek troubles of 1904, when the Colorado authorities and the labor organization behind the striking miners both lost sight of the necessity for suppressing rioting first and discussing the merits of the case afterwards, the Cananea outbreak has been admirably handled. Mexican miners have the right to strike for better wages whenever and wherever they please, but when they resort to violence they are, very properly, regarded merely as lawbreakers; Gov. Ysabel and the War Department at Washington are agreed on that. The mere fact that American miners were involved in the trouble, however, did not justify the first hysterical demand of our Consul for American troops. As well might the Italian Consul in New Orleans have asked Rome for soldiers at the time of the massacre. Our promoters who go across the borders and take with them American workmen who are scornful of "Greasers" and intolerant of Spanish customs, are inviting race conflicts. Until we learn that there is a difference between the brow-beaten Mexican of Arizona and southern California and the people of Chihuahua and Sinaloa, we must expect such clashes.

Lynchers have been accused of various crimes, from murder down, but never before have they been arraigned for contempt of court. Yet the action of the Supreme Court on May 24, in granting Attorney-General Moody's request that a rule be issued to each of the known Chattanooga lynchers of last March, compelling them to appear next October and show cause why they should not be punished for "contempt of this honorable court," is to be commended. It is one way in which the long arm of the national law can reach out to a crime which is a national disgrace. The Chattanooga lynching was peculiarly flagrant. What brings the crime within the scope of the Supreme Court is the fact that it had entertained an appeal in behalf of the accused man. This was only to assure him all his rights under the laws and Constitution of the United States; but the mob could not endure that orderly process, and took advantage of the culpable negligence of the sheriff to break into the jail and murder the prisoner. This was, of course, a violation of the laws of Tennessee; but the grand jury would not indict a single one of the lynchers, though strongly urged to do so by the presiding judge. Now the Attorney-General means to see what Federal justice can do in the premises. He names twenty-seven men in his application to the court. A Chattanooga dispatch states significantly that ten of these are "officials, the sheriff and his deputies." Thus does race hatred—of course, the man lynched was a negro—turn even sworn guardians into lynchers.

The Missouri Democratic Convention has endorsed Mr. Bryan for the Presidency, and this action will probably be followed by the Indiana Democratic Convention. Ohio Democrats are also for him, Tom Johnson declares. Putting these political signs with the talk that many Eastern Democrats are now ready to "take Bryan," we get pretty good proof that his candidacy will, barring accidents, have to be reckoned with. This is a striking tribute to Mr. Bryan's popular qualities—his good nature, his gift of serious and eloquent speech, and the impression he makes of being absolutely honest personally. But it is a still more striking testimony to what President Roosevelt has done to rehabilitate Mr. Bryan. Any Republican who, after following Roosevelt, should object to Bryan as a radical, would simply be laughed at consumedly.

Though the reform Republicans showed a vast amount of enthusiasm for a regenerated Pennsylvania at the convention of the "Lincoln Party" in Philadelphia on Thursday, they were timid in translating their ardor into action. For Governor, Lewis Emery, jr., was nominated, and, as was predicted, Mayor Weaver did not contest the honor. With a caution that would better become a meeting of the hated machine Republicans, however, the convention notified Mr. Emery and his fellow-nominees that they could not withdraw from the ticket after July 10. By that time, of course, the organization Republicans will have settled upon their candidates; and if the reformers approve the choice of the regulars, it will be for Emery and his mates to withdraw. On reassembling, with the same officers, the Lincolnites' convention would then endorse the candidates of the Penrose faction. In effect, therefore, the convention in Philadelphia amounted merely to a threat that the reform Republicans will really be independent unless the Penrose crowd show a chastened spirit. This compromising attitude is discouraging. "Reform within the party" has been given up in Philadelphia as impracticable; just why the Lincolnites expect it to take place all over the State is hard to see.

The chief impression which the Mayor's review of the city's borrowing capacity will produce on the public mind, is painful consciousness of a confused and hardly intelligible fiscal system. For good and sufficient reasons, the State Constitution forbids a municipality to go into debt for a greater sum than 10 per cent. of its assessed valuation. As we have approached uncomfortably close to this limit, we have adopted the expedient of assessing property at the estimated market value, instead of the traditional 70 per cent. of such value. Thus we have at once acquired and made use of an opportunity to increase the city's indebtedness. There is nothing irregular or improper in the change, but it clearly introduces an artificial element into the debt-limit question; and, moreover, it creates a further danger against which Mr. McClellan, even while searching for means of justifying large debt expansion, warns the city. The Mayor very sensibly points out that a debt-limit, fixed by assessment at market values on the crest of a "boom" in real estate, may easily lead to a position where, with a "crash" in realty speculation, assessment even at market values would leave the city with its constitutional borrowing power actually exceeded.

This is one illustration of the looseness of the present system. Reference might also be made to the new plan of

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issuing city bonds against the amount of uncollected and uncollectible back taxes —another expedient authorized by law, but in its nature an obvious pretext and evasion of the original debt-limitation principle. One may fully agree with the Mayor's assertion that the city's financial strength is "perhaps unequalled in any municipality in the world," and with Mr. F. A. Vanderlip's recent assurance that the existing debt "ought to be regarded as a small obligation for a city of such resources and with such a population"; and yet one may properly dislike and criticise the system of accounting now in vogue. The city's balance-sheet, its income and expense exhibit, are statements so complicated that it is doubtful if a dozen unofficial citizens have ever gone to the bottom of them. Not only so, but the city's own fiscal officers, having taken the plunge into that sea of figures, rarely emerge in agreement with one another as to what the figures mean. This we consider an absurd and inexcusable situation—notably so when the United States Treasury, with all the ramifications of its business, is able to make public every day, in a form so clear as to be intelligible to a schoolboy, the income, outlay, and actual financial condition of the Government.

It is fairly obvious that the first step towards remedying the highly dangerous conditions which the Citizens' Union and other investigators have exposed in the storing and handling of explosives in this city, must be to get rid of the men under whose lax and incompetent control such a state of affairs has been tolerated. The removal of Superintendent Murray of the Bureau of Combustibles at Fire Headquarters ought to be only the first step toward maintaining really efficient safeguards for the future. For if this praiseworthy act of Fire Commissioner O'Brien is not followed up, Murray might almost as well have been left where he was. If ever a city was in a mood and in a position to protect itself from future disasters through explosions, it was New York when, after the Park Avenue calamity had closely followed upon the Tarrant explosion, Mayor Low appointed a commission of high character to consider the whole subject. Yet it is a fact to be faced that in five years the good results of the work then begun have nearly or quite disappeared. The Municipal Explosives Commission (until recently a master plumber, a furniture dealer, and a fireworks salesman) commands respect neither from the public whose interests it is supposed to protect, nor from those engaged in work with explosives. The regulations already made by it, moreover, have been notoriously disregarded. It is generally believed, though categorical proof has not yet been offered, that the "certificates of fitness" issued by the Bureau of Combustibles have been freely bartered about and regularly sold to men who could not secure them at first hand. However this may be, it is notorious that the legal precautions are neglected in setting off blasts.

If the latest revelations as to the looting of the Mutual Life do not put prison stripes on some of the highest officers of the McCurdy administration, the robbed policyholders will be bitterly disappointed. According to the testimony being presented to the grand jury, the methods by which the money was stolen were simple in the extreme. Bills for supplies were padded, and the excess was turned over to Andrew C. Fields, head of the supply department. Thousands of dollars were paid nominally to phantom firms, but really to Fields. He used these vast funds presumably for maintaining the infamous "House of Mirth" at Albany, and for influencing in other ways legislation in which the Mutual was interested. Whether any of this stream of corruption was diverted into the pockets of officers of the Mutual, does not yet appear. Certain it is that this elaborate system of plundering the company could not have been put into effect without the collusion of various men in authority. These supply bills were audited by Fields's immediate superior and by the committee on expenditures; and then they were paid by the cashier. If none of these men detected the trick, they were either very stupid, unfit for positions of trust, or else they deliberately closed their eyes. Whatever may be urged in behalf of the eminent and virtuous gentlemen who approved the fraudulent bills, somebody, through their ignorance, indifference, or connivance, was guilty of theft.

Increasing if still vague talk of an Anglo-Russian alliance calls attention to the fact that outstanding disputes between Great Britain and Russia admit of ready settlement. If there is no real community of interest that would justify an alliance, there are matters pending to warrant an *entente*. It would clear up the international situation, for example, if Russia and England should agree as to the delimitation of their respective spheres of influence in Persia and on the Afghan and Tibetan frontiers. The time is also presumably ripe for England's formal abandonment of the dogma of Turkish integrity, and for some acknowledgment of Russia's especial position in that relation. In short, there is room for reconciliation between two countries which have suffered from exaggerated mutual distrust. To reach an adjustment should not be difficult when the really more complex motive of the Anglo-French *entente* is considered. One may readily believe that Sir Edward Grey has something of the sort on the cards, if only to meet the hackneyed jeer that the Liberals are duffers in foreign politics. But anything like a new triple alliance against Germany is merely a product of the journalistic imagination foreseeing the dull season.

A tariff war, with all its delights, is threatened between France and Spain. The new Spanish tariff is made up on the German plan of two columns; one containing the minimum rates, to be applied to the goods of those foreign nations which make satisfactory reciprocal arrangements; in the second, the maximum rates to be put in force against all others. By the law, the Government is made the judge of the adequacy of the concessions offered to Spanish exports by other countries, and Señor Moret has intimated that the French concessions are not sufficient. This news has caused a flutter among French exporters. They recall the former war of tariffs between Spain and France, so harmful to both countries. While it raged, during the nineties, the exports of Spain to France fell off $40,000,000, or nearly one-half, while the sale of French products to Spain dropped from $60,000,000 to $30,000,000. Other causes doubtless contributed to this diminished trade, but competing tariff taxes were mainly responsible. With that unhappy experience in mind, the sensible men in either Government must surely agree not to plunge into so senseless a commercial strife again.

The Austro-Hungarian situation has this constant feature, that, while Vienna and Budapest may be simultaneously storm centres, peace at one capital invariably means trouble at the other. We are assured, for example, that the Emperor has arrived at a good understanding with the Hungarian Independents, only to observe a change of Ministry and general clamor at Vienna. The Magyars are no sooner appeased than the Germans cry treason, and so it goes. The moral of the situation seems to be that it is dangerous to trade too much on the present good feeling in Hungary. The Wekerle Ministry was formed merely to establish a *modus vivendi* and provide for a new Diet elected by universal suffrage. Clearly, the task of settling the fiscal, army, and language questions lies with the future Parliament. It is difficult to see how the project of universal suffrage and the general suspicions of the truce at Vienna can seriously affect the Hungarian bargain, if it is carried out promptly and in good faith. But time is of the essence of the compromise. To keep the present provisional Diet too long in session, and to reintroduce the old contentious matter, might seriously impair the *entente* between the followers of Kossuth and the Emperor-King.

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THE GORMAN TYPE.

The death of Arthur Pue Gorman removes one of the ablest members of the United States Senate. To his contemporaries he was not merely the representative of Maryland in the upper house of Washington and the leader of the Democratic forces in that body, but the type of a politician common to all ranks, from board of aldermen to Senate. He was the flower of his kind. He achieved all that was possible for a man of his character; he won the appropriate rewards.

He went into politics early, and went in to win. His only motto seems to have been that the way to succeed is to succeed. Of course, he cast in his lot with the dominant party of his State—the Democratic. He was in turn a collector of internal revenue, a member of the House of Delegates, then of the State Senate, and finally of the United States Senate. His prominence set many people to talking of him as a candidate for the Presidency. The qualities which carried him steadily forward in office might conceivably have secured him the nomination for the Presidency in a convention dominated by politicians. But he himself was shrewd enough to know that a campaign under his name would be foredoomed to failure; that his deserved reputation as a skilful manipulator of men and marshal of the forces of corruption had created deep popular distrust. Running against any man who could even pose as a constructive statesman, Gorman would have been beaten from the start.

His career furnishes food for thought for all practical politicians. If politics be regarded merely as a means of livelihood, his success at the trade should be an encouragement to thousands of aspiring men who have more brains than moral scruples. He was able to wield much influence, to secure a certain social position, and to live in comfort. These are commonly reckoned among the good things of this world. But if politics be viewed as an opportunity for public service, his years have been barren of achievement. Couple his name with that of Carl Schurz, whose record as an officeholder is comparatively brief, and every man sees instantly whose tomb should bear the epitaph "Failure."

Men who are keen and active, and who have no principles as impedimenta, often find the path of politics easy. It requires only mediocre ability to construct a personal machine in a city ward or even a district which elects representatives in Congress. Moreover, the control of a Legislature is not difficult for one who has the resources and the stomach for such an undertaking. While Thomas C. Platt and Chauncey M. Depew are United States Senators from New York, and John F. Dryden from New Jersey, no man whose capital consists of either vulpine cunning or corporation backing need despair of a similar honor. While convictions can be improvised or else changed as easily as a coat, no one should fear greatly the ups and downs of political life and the changes in party leadership. Votes are always to be had by him who will pay for them, and henchmen will remain devoted to the distributor of patronage. With a thick skin and without ideals, your professional politician can go a long way.

But not to the end. Sooner or later his character overtakes his reputation; in some critical moment he finds it impossible to be both saint and devil. For Gorman, the hour of revelation came when the Wilson tariff bill was before the Senate. Confronting the alternative of loyalty to a principle or to a purse, he chose the latter. That great betrayal stripped him naked in the presence of the whole country. After that episode no one had confidence in him. His dexterity as a parliamentarian, his readiness in debate, his cleverness in organizing and running machinery, his ingenuity as a political schemer—all these have counted for little or nothing.

It is not pleasant to say these things of the dead. But it is at the moment when his death lifts him—probably for the last time—to a conspicuous position that the bitter truth should be spoken. Here and now the lesson is open for young and old. With capacity that might have gained him a sure place in our roll of patriots and statesmen, he deliberately wrote his name in water.

WAYS OF "REGENERATING" BUSINESS.

Senator Beveridge, in one of those mouth-filling phrases which pass with certain orators for thought, declares that his meat-inspection amendment marks the beginning of the "moral regeneration of American business." That much American business is in need of a new birth, we presume few will deny. Too many unregenerate specimens have been on exhibition lately. If there is any way of removing their hearts of stone and giving them hearts of flesh, we are all interested in both process and result. But it is well not to run off after false lights, or to be deluded by conversions which are only skin-deep or purely for advertising purposes. We may wisely distrust any form of regeneration that sounds a trumpet before itself in the streets. And to the spectacular, grandiloquent preachers who tell us of some new and easy short-cut to regeneration, avoiding the old painful road of repentance, restitution, and a sober and godly life, a deaf ear had best be turned. Our business disease is not to be cured by some Senator lifting his hand to high heaven and rolling out great swelling words of vanity, but by going humbly down into Jordan to wash and be clean.

Laws can do something for us. But, to accomplish anything, they must be conceived in common sense and so drafted as to be constitutional and enforceable. Senator Beveridge's law is already found to be neither. The lawyers of the House have discovered that it is too carelessly drawn, that the amendment itself must be thoroughly amended. In the face of Supreme Court decisions to the contrary, it goes upon the presumption that Congress can "regulate" the manufacture of articles produced in any State and intended for interstate commerce. But till the products are actually turned over to a common carrier, for shipment across State lines, the power of Congress does not apply. This is the fact which, combined with other considerations, makes it desirable that the work of meat-inspection, in Chicago or elsewhere, should be done by municipal or State authorities, and made as drastic as any man could wish. Indeed, the packers themselves ought to invite and welcome such inspection. They ought to do it for the shrewdest business reasons. To be able to announce to the world that the whole process of transportation of animals to the Chicago stockyards, their slaughter and preparation for distribution in every form, was under the most stringent sanitary regulation, would be worth everything to the packing houses. By printing on their labels and in their advertisements a copy of the statute compelling them to have all their output rigidly inspected, they could do much to restore confidence in the honesty of their methods and the purity of their wares.

We must not imagine, however, that in legal enactment lies the only remedy. Natural law still reigns in the business world. Punishment falls of itself upon abuses; short-sighted greed has penalties to pay. News from abroad shows that a swifter loss than any restraining legislation could possibly inflict upon the packers, they are in a way to suffer by the falling-off in their trade consequent upon distrust of their business integrity. In France there is something like a boycott of American meat-products forming. English consumers are also reported to be concerned and determined to withhold orders. If half the current rumors are true, the sales of canned goods in this country are being deeply cut into. This is one of the finest ways of "regenerating" a sinful business known to the theologians.

Adulteration, false weights, goods below contract, skimping, disregard of the health both of workers in the manufacture and consumers in the market—all these things are an abomination to business as well as to the Lord. They are "bad business," as all men can see when the exposure comes. In the highest standards of business honor, in products

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kept up to grade, the highest profits are to be made, taking the years together. It is not necessary to invoke an avenging Government; angry consumers, tricked customers, buyers frightened away will execute punishment. For even American humor must fail to see the joke in impure food. The curmudgeon squire who sent spoiled beer out to his laborers in the fields asked them how they liked it. "That was just right for us, sir," was the reply. "If it had been any better, you wouldn't have given it to us, and if it had been any worse, we couldn't have drunk it." People are in no mood to take their provisions in that spirit. They will insist upon knowing what they are getting, and why it is not the best possible. And the producers who can most securely guarantee the purity and healthfulness of what they have to sell, will most speedily get a business both regenerated and profitable.

SPREAD OF THE REFERENDUM.

The Oregon election this week is noteworthy for the number of propositions submitted to the people under the referendum amendment adopted four years ago. While the people of Utah and Nevada, the latest States to adopt the initiative and referendum, have apparently made no use whatever of their new privilege, Oregon is applying it freely to most of the questions of local interest. In 1904, local option, the direct primary, and a change in the provision for State printing were put on the ballot and carried through by popular vote. This year the ballot bears five constitutional amendments initiated by petition: extending the principle of the referendum to local laws, giving cities and towns the right to amend their own charters, and altering in some details the method of submitting amendments.

These amendments have been proposed by the People's Power League, the aggressive organization which carried on the original campaign for the referendum. It also has initiated this year an anti-pass law. Besides the League bills, the Equal Suffrage Association has filed a petition for a Constitutional amendment giving women the ballot; the State Grange initiates a corporation tax bill, the owners of toll-roads seek in this way the purchase of their property by the State, the State Liquor Dealers' Association has initiated amendments to the local-option law of two years ago, put on the ballot by the Prohibitionists; and, finally, one of the regular State appropriation bills which was held up last spring by the filing of a petition, comes up now for ratification. The list thus includes not only what may be called the "stock" reforms—those which have everywhere been seeking a hearing for years—and such minor constitutional changes as every State has to make rather frequently, but also matters which, outside of a referendum State, would remain absolutely in the control of the Legislature.

There is probably an element of truth in the very natural suggestion that the State is enjoying the referendum now with the zest everywhere aroused by a new game, and that interest will flag later on. Still, an awakened interest in the referendum has not been confined to Oregon alone. The interesting "news bulletins" which the People's Sovereignty League has been issuing lately, abound in items showing its spread. The Massachusetts Senate defeated a "public opinion" bill after the lower house had voted for it by an overwhelming majority. The Kansas Democrats have declared in their platform for a similar law; both parties in Maine are reported likely to do the same. In Texas, Georgia, Florida, and a dozen Western States there are organized efforts to bring the Legislatures elected this fall in line for the referendum. In advance of Statehood, the movement is being carried into Oklahoma and Indian Territory. The custom of submitting long-contested laws to the people by special referendum, as was done in Wisconsin with the direct-primary law, also seems on the increase, as is undoubtedly direct legislation in local matters, especially as regards taxation. Seattle, following the lead of Los Angeles, has gone so far as the "recall" applied by popular vote to misbehaving officials.

A singular feature of the case is that the referendum, based as it is to some extent upon the theory that the interests and beliefs of legislators and constituents are diverse, has thus far been used chiefly to secure for new States measures that have been elsewhere adopted by ordinary Legislatures. Thus, the referendum gave Oregon the direct primary which Minnesota and Illinois had received at the hands of the Legislature; also, local option, which a score of States have achieved in the usual way through their representatives. The woman-suffragists jump at the chance of employing the initiative petition, though in the States where they actually have succeeded they did so by convincing the Legislatures first and securing popular ratification afterwards.

The referendum programme naturally associates itself with the direct primary. The one is no more a complete cure for bad legislation than the other is for bad nominations, but both may perhaps be of great value as preventives. There are many men in public life who could not stand the test of the direct primary, just as there are many laws on the statute-books which could not stand the test of the referendum. Both are merely devices for facilitating the expression of public opinion; and where sound opinion does not exist, both are somewhat worse than useless. Already the direct-primary States and cities are bringing out many times more citizens to take part in making nominations than ever appeared at the old caucuses. In 1904, upon seventeen important referendum propositions and Constitutional amendments in eight States, a bare half of the voters taking part in the elections expressed themselves at all. This ratio will have to be radically changed before the referendum becomes a really active force for good in our political life.

FOR CONTROL OF ANARCHISTS.

When President Garfield was assassinated, Gen. Grant exclaimed, on hearing of the crime, "For my part, I am in favor of having the civilized nations put down anarchists with a hard hand." It was the natural expression of a blunt and simple nature; and we hear it echoed every time there is an anarchistic outrage. After McKinley's murder, it was the common talk. Congress was to be required to enact such laws as would free our rulers from the haunting and daily dread of being struck down by anarchists. That died out; but similar ideas are put forward now in consequence of the fiendish attempt upon the lives of the young King and Queen of Spain. How to keep anarchists under surveillance and control is declared to be a pressing question. Andrew D. White would have an international bureau of police to run down bomb-throwers. It is said that the Italian Government is ready to call a congress of the nations for the purpose of taking effective measures against the assassins who call themselves anarchists.

No one would say a word in disparagement of any plan which might contribute to even the fancied security of men in high place, but we have to face the fact that murderous anarchism is an evil very difficult to deal with successfully by police regulation. Something may doubtless be done to make the co-operation between the police of different countries more effective. Suspicious persons may be more closely shadowed, their records kept, their movements noted; and, when they pass from one land to another, timely notification may be given. Precautions of other kinds may very well be extended to advantage. But when all is done that human ingenuity can compass, anarchists will go on slipping through the police net and putting governments to their wits' end in devising means to suppress this constant peril to all in great station.

This will remain true so long as anarchists remain of their present temper, since there is no sure way of spotting an anarchist on sight or of depriving him of weapons. There are, of course, anarchistic "groups" which have their meeting-places and their more or less open propaganda. Upon them the

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police can keep a watchful eye. Their members can be identified and traced. But anarchism is not a label; it is a frame of mind. Unsuspected and undetected, the mildest-mannered and most philanthropic appearing of mortals may suddenly display it, and throw his bomb or plunge his dagger. This is the unpleasant truth which makes all the suggestions of international surveillance of anarchists seem necessarily disappointing. If anarchists were all of one race; if they looked alike and had a distinctive dress or loudly proclaimed their tenets and their plots, it would be easy enough to hold them in check. But murder in the heart cannot be read on the face. A man may take ship as an inoffensive citizen and step ashore an anarchist—that is, if he happens to have an ill-balanced brain, which gets upset by brooding or reading or conversation on the voyage. Nor is there much more hope in restricting the knowledge and sale of explosives, and so depriving anarchists of their terrible instruments. As the case of the Madrid bomb-thrower, Morales, shows, a smattering of chemistry, easily obtainable from accessible books, is enough to equip the anarchist. Besides, he is just as likely to be successful with ordinary weapons as with high explosives. Our three murdered Presidents fell before bullets, not bombs. So did King Humbert. A dagger took the life of the Empress Elizabeth. If Kings and Presidents are allowed to appear in public at all, there must always be the chance that some one undreamed of by the police will get near enough to at least attempt assassination. As King Alfonso is reported to have said when congratulated on his escape, "Yes, but it will come again." The risk is always there.

Anarchism being the defiance of all reason, it is impossible to cure or crush it by reasonable methods. What the world has to count upon, apparently for an indefinite future, is the existence of a class of men whom we must regard as a noxious by-product of civilization. The sight of wealth and power awakens the tigerish instinct in their hearts. It does no good to prove to them that they are stupid as well as inhuman, that organized government must go on, and that, as President Roosevelt said in his first message, men will always be found to step forward and take the place of murdered rulers. Anarchists care nothing for that argument, since their chief aim is to create terror and produce an immense sensation. If a way could be devised of robbing their crimes of publicity, it might have a deterrent effect. If it were possible for the press to agree to suppress all but the barest mention of a murder by anarchists, their great aim of causing a world-wide horror would be partially defeated. But anarchism would remain. We should still have these men ready to scuttle the ship in order to wreak their sullen vengeance. They reck not of their own lives. The ordinary penalties of the law mean nothing to them. Extraordinary measures taken by the authorities, they will be able sooner or later to circumvent. So for the present there is little for us except, after having done everything humanly possible to guard our rulers and to watch the suspect, to reckon calmly upon the fact that the occupation of King or President is extra-hazardous. The anarchist lurks by the path and may strike with poisoned fangs. We may hope that some day such reptiles will disappear; but they are with us today, and orderly society, while extirpating as many of them as possible, must not allow the survivors to intimidate, though they may momentarily appall.

THE INDEFINITE A.B.

The June number of *World's Work* celebrates the degree-conferring season by a searching inquiry into the meaning of the usual collegiate degree. It returns from the investigation with the rather disheartening news that the letters A.B. mean so many different kinds of education that they mean practically nothing. Formerly the bachelor's badge indicated at least that its wearer "had spent four years in a cultivated and learned society, where he had been brought more or less in contact with two dead languages, a little stale philosophy, and some higher mathematics." To-day the degree implies no common standard of discipline, is granted for courses ranging from Sanskrit to metal-working, and for terms of residence ranging from two to five or more years. With its usual bent for the practical, *World's Work* is for abolishing so vague a designation, and makes the "honest" suggestion that we substitute for a degree a certificate giving in outline the college record of the individual student.

Such a certificate would clearly be beyond suspicion in the matter of honesty, but its alleged practicality dwindles under inspection. One may doubt if a bank officer employing a college graduate would give this certificate either an intelligent or even a patient reading. Who is to decide whether a third assistant receiving-teller requires a surplus of "polly con" or benefits by a shortage of compendious fine-arts? College presidents in their wisdom have decided that it is impossible to establish any educational distinction between the numerous subjects qualifying for a mere academic abstraction—the baccalaureate degree; how, then, shall simple employers decide what combination of lectures and recitations makes best for practical efficiency? The day is probably far off when a practising broker will accept or reject a diplomaed office boy because the applicant is a little too long of Romance philology and a trifle short of physiological psychology.

If the suggestion of replacing degrees with certificates is, like most very "simple and practical" proposals, more complex and difficult than it seems, it at least calls attention to the confusion that reigns in collegiate education. At institutions like Harvard and Johns Hopkins the A.B. merely means that its possessor has for an uncertain time studied something or other. Although the slender resources of the small colleges do not permit them to spoon out quite so variegated an educational haggis, they are hastening towards the prevailing impressionistic indefiniteness as fast as their means permit. At many colleges the A.B. may have spent most of his time in linguistics or in laboratory courses in the natural sciences; he may freely have substituted quantitative analysis for Greek tragedy, elementary Italian for logic, descriptive geometry for English lyrical poetry, and so on. In such depths of unreason the theory of the complete equality of educational values, as between different subjects of instruction, has landed us.

"But," some downright soul will say, "we must call the miscellaneous output of this many-mouthed mill something. What's the harm of calling it an A.B. or a Boojum? Things, not names, signify." It is precisely because things do signify that one desires an academic nomenclature which does roughly correspond to existing educational facts. We cannot hope to restore the old uniform college curriculum, but no discerning observer of the present educational confusion can fail to see that a kind of order is already establishing itself. The main line of cleavage between studies chiefly historical and those chiefly scientific is as valid as ever. It is already true that the classics of France and Germany are doing for the average student of humane letters what those of Greece and Rome did for his predecessors; but there has been practically no approximation between those branches of learning which regard the past of man as their field, and those which regard primarily the present phenomenal world. By misleading figures of speech we speak of scientific methods of historical, linguistic, or literary research; the prevailing lack of standards leads us to impute exaggerated cultural value to the experimental methods of the sciences. In both instances the possibilities of formal instruction are vastly over-estimated, and those of life in the world unduly depreciated. We take it that the cloistered student of books must pick up the much-vaunted experimental method as he goes, whereas the graduate of the laboratories will, if he be wise, consult life and leisure for his "humanities."

Still, the academic distinction between historical and scientific training remains in force. To-day most college

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men are students of the humanities in the wider sense, of the exact sciences in the restricted sense, or of a generally ill-considered mixture of the two subjects. Should not college degrees correspond to this fact? There are turned out annually, under the title of Bachelors of Arts, some thousands of Bachelors of Science, or of mishmash. And since the last name, though eminently descriptive, lacks academic authority, the special certificate for which *World's Work* pleads might be bestowed upon those uncompromising individualists who decline to be fish, flesh, or good red herring. Such certificates are actually granted to those rare unfortunates who fail to fit into any one of the nest of pigeonholes which, by a gross abuse of language, we still continue to call a college curriculum. For the average student a bachelorhood in arts or in science, as the case may be, sufficiently designates his training, and, happily, many colleges and universities still stand upon this useful distinction.

IRELAND AND THE RADICAL GOVERNMENT.

DUBLIN, May 17, 1906.

"Good government cannot take the place of self-government," said Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, in one of his first speeches as Prime Minister, when referring to the Irish question. The present Government, like many preceding ones, professes and really has the best possible intentions towards Ireland and the Irish people; but intentions are not always translated into action. At once, on its accession to office, the tone of the Irish administration was changed. The Coercion Act's operation was suspended; its repeal was promised; directions that juries were not to be "packed" were issued by the new law officers; prosecutions initiated by the late Government were withdrawn, and there were to be no more State trials for alleged intimidation of persons who said they were not intimidated, or of country farmers who had their names painted on their carts in Gaelic letters. The Chief Secretary, Mr. Bryce, has more than once expressed his sympathy with and approval of the Gaelic movement. He has promised to reconsider the withdrawal of fees for teaching Gaelic in the national schools, which his predecessor had threatened, and to devise a more effective system of Gaelic instruction than has hitherto prevailed. He has withdrawn the instructions of his predecessor, which limited and retarded the operations of the Land Purchase Act, and, by his conciliatory manner in the House of Commons, in striking contrast to the insolence of his predecessor, he has kept the Irish members not wholly satisfied, but in reasonably good humor. As the representative in Parliament of all the Irish departments, Mr. Bryce has to answer nearly as many questions as all the English ministers together, and he shows a wise distrust of the Irish officials by almost invariably replying not on his own responsibility, but to the effect that the information asked for is supplied by such or such a board or official.

Ireland, however, cannot be administered in accordance with Irish ideas merely by good intentions, and there are already indications that Dublin Castle is getting the upper hand with Mr. Bryce and reverting to its old practices. Within the last few weeks prosecutions for the use of Gaelic have begun again. Once initiated by the police, such cases must be adjudicated on by the magistrates. They might, of course, dismiss them, but the Gaelic movement is a violent irritant to many persons of the class from which the magistrates are drawn. Apart from politics—the Gaelic League invites persons of all shades of politics and religion to become members—it is a protest against the Anglicization of Ireland, against vulgar English plays, comic songs, and "penny dreadfuls," with which Ireland has been deluged. It seeks to interest the Irish people in Ireland, its history, customs, music, and literature; and this appears to the magisterial class as disloyalty. Almost every week Mr. Bryce, in the House of Commons, professes his desire to see the provisions of the Land Act for the restoration of the evicted tenants made rapidly operative; but when a public meeting was held in the County Kilkenny to consider the question, 350 police were sent to attend, and disperse it if it appeared to the police inspector that the speeches were calculated to intimidate any one. As the evicted farms are usually in the occupation of the evicting landlord, any reference to them may be interpreted as intimidation. To make a police inspector judge, jury, and executioner in a case that might be brought before the ordinary courts, was both imprudent and foolish, but it ended in the meeting being held without interruption.

Very fully occupied with his Parliamentary duties, Mr. Bryce cannot be considered personally responsible for the acts of all the officials in Ireland, or for those of the many boards of which he is nominally the head. He is expected to defend them as far as he can if they do wrong or act foolishly, and could hardly disavow their action unless he was prepared to supersede them and personally superintend all the details of administration. As chief secretary, Mr. Bryce is head of the Local Government Board, one of the most important Irish departments, its business being really transacted by three commissioners of the usual anti-popular type. John Burns is president of the English Local Government Board and a cabinet minister. Not many years ago John Burns was convicted, sentenced, and imprisoned for taking part in an illegal assembly and obstructing the police. This was not considered to disqualify him from becoming a minister of the crown. The Galway County Council appointed as rate collector a Mr. Hobbs. He was a magistrate and chairman of a district council. He had been tried under the Coercion Act, convicted by a packed jury, and imprisoned for taking part in an "illegal assembly," a meeting to denounce the grazing system in Galway, by which vast tracts of fertile land are kept uninhabited. The Local Government Board purported to act on a rule made by itself that imprisonment shall be a disqualification for such an appointment as that given by the County Council to Mr. Hobbs. It appears probable that the rule is *ultra vires*, for, when questioned in the House of Commons, the Irish attorney-general was unable to say whether the board had power under its acts to make any such rule. If there is such a rule, Mr. Bryce is as much bound by it as the other members of the board until it is rescinded, or shown to be illegal, and, notwithstanding the English precedent in John Burns's case, he has so far taken no public steps to express dissent from the action of his colleagues. Yet Hobbs's offence contrasts favorably with that for which John Burns was convicted, for Hobbs was tried under a provision of the Coercion Act which enabled the jury to be doubly packed, first by the jury panel being selected from a special class, and next by the unlimited exercise of the Crown's privilege of objecting to jurors who could not be trusted to convict. At the time, the Irish party called attention in Parliament to the trial as an outrage on justice, and Mr. Bryce, then out of office, supported them in the Division Lobby.

If good government is synonymous with government in accordance with Irish ideas, it is impracticable under existing conditions. The system is at fault: the Chief Secretary can give little real or personal attention to the details of administration, and can for official purposes only know what his officials tell him. Almost the entire Irish bureaucracy are hostile to all popular government, and the general impression is that Mr. Bryce is more and more falling under their sway. Cardinal Logue, the Catholic Primate, expressed this feeling in a recent speech with reference to some promised inquiry into educational matters. He said: "We have had changes of Government and new Ministers, but my experience since I was a boy—and it is a very long experience now—is that it matters very little to Irishmen, and matters even still less to the Irish Catholics, what Government is in power in England. . . . We find that we are still under the blight of Castle rule, and still subjected to the withering breath of ascendancy in this country." Mr. Asquith, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, when in opposition, supported Irish protests against the overtaxation of Ireland, but gave no effect in his Budget to these pious opinions. His excuse, like Mr. Bryce's, is that the Liberals have been too short a time in office to make any radical change in the policy or practice of their predecessors. The good intentions of the Prime Minister, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and the Chief Secretary are unquestionable; but it is to be remembered that twenty years ago they thought Home Rule the most urgently pressing public question; and that the only difference in present circumstances is, that there is not an alarming agitation on the subject. It was well known that for this year, at any rate, there would be no Home Rule legislation, but it is supposed that the Government is preparing some measure of reform in Irish administration for next year.

The Under Secretary for Ireland, Sir Anthony MacDonnell, took some part in preparing the "Devolution" scheme put forward last year by Lord Dunraven's Reform Association. It was over this that Mr. Wyndham, who was supposed to have approved in private what he denounced in public, fell. The proposal made was: (1.) To establish a Financial Council, of twelve elected and twelve nominated members, to which should be entrusted the expenditure

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of such part of the Irish revenue as should be held applicable to purely Irish purposes; (2.) To create a statutory body, composed of Irish peers and members of Parliament, which should have power to promote Irish legislation, but not to pass it; and to consider and advise Parliament on such Irish matters as might be referred to it. So far as this scheme has been discussed in public, it was rejected by the Unionists and by the Nationalists. It did not seem calculated either to relieve Parliament of Irish business, or to place the responsibility of real self-government on the Irish people. "Devolution," however, may mean many different things, and it is quite possible that next session a scheme of a different character, but under the same title, may be introduced by the Government. It would, as hitherto presented, be neither good government nor self-government.

AN IRISHMAN.

THE OLYMPIC GAMES.

ATHENS, May 5, 1906.

Ten years ago this city witnessed the first celebration of the modern Olympic Games, and though the festival had been organized at only a few months' notice, in which time it was utterly impossible to complete the restoration of the Stadium in marble, and not a few other deficiencies in the arrangements made themselves felt, the remarkable enthusiasm of the Greek people and the wonderful setting of the festival afforded by the Stadium and the glories of the Attic landscape turned all shortcomings into a brilliant success. Since then the Olympic Games have been celebrated twice in other lands—at Paris in 1900 and at St. Louis in 1904, as had been arranged by the international athletic conference of 1895; but it was generally acknowledged that both celebrations fell far below the success of the 1896 meeting. This was not due merely to the fact that in both cases the athletic gathering was but an adjunct of a World's Fair; there was lacking that indefinable something which distinguished the Athenian festival from ordinary athletic contests, and which apparently cannot be found elsewhere. If one were asked to give that something a name, one would not hesitate, after witnessing the festival of 1906, to describe it as the subtle influence of climate and tradition which must have inspired the apotheosis of athletics in ancient Greece.

The King of Greece, at the banquet which he gave to the Olympic victors in 1896, expressed the hope that Athens would become the permanent home of the revived Olympic Games. This did not, of course, have much weight with those who had set their hearts upon celebrating an Olympic festival in their own countries; and the Graeco-Turkish war of 1897, with its reverses and humiliations, precluded any further action in the matter by the Greeks. Even the restoration of the Stadium was interrupted for some years after the war, and resumed only in 1902. But after the St. Louis games had proved hardly more successful than those in Paris, the Crown Prince of Greece, who had taken the matter very much to heart, believed that the time had come to venture a decisive stroke, and soon the Greek Parliament legalized the Olympic Games as a national institution, to be held in Athens once in every four years, and to be open to all nations. And the results have fully justified the measure.

Once more Athens has celebrated the Olympic Games, this time in a Stadium completed and resplendent in white marble, and with a measure of success far surpassing that of 1896, though some of us who attended that first festival will ever look back to it as a revelation in itself, of which all subsequent festivals can be but repetitions and amplifications.

One important factor of this year's success was the excellent work done by the various national committees, in Athens and abroad. In most foreign countries the highest political personages lent the weight of their influence to the work of preparing as large and as strong national athletic contingents as possible; while at Athens the Olympic Games Committee, aided by several sub-committees, accomplished the task of preparation with praiseworthy energy. In this connection one must do justice to the indefatigable activity of the General Secretary, Prof. Sp. Lambros of the University of Athens, upon whom the greater part of the work devolved. But perhaps the hardest workers for the success of the Olympic Games, both as regards the preparatory stage and during the entire festival, were the King of Greece and the Crown Prince Constantine. To their efforts one cannot but attribute not only the participation of so many heads of foreign States in the work of the respective national committees, but more especially the attendance of King Edward and Queen Alexandra, with the Prince and Princess of Wales, at the opening of the games. The presence of these royal visitors added greatly to the splendor of the celebration and to the general interest felt in the Olympic Games throughout the world, while among the Greeks themselves King Edward's visit aroused great enthusiasm, and was taken as a mark of special friendship for Greece and her people.

Certainly Athens has never yet seen so large and enthusiastic a concourse of visitors, Greek and foreign, as during this memorable celebration, and the city's accommodations have been taxed to the uttermost. Every language of Europe could be heard in the happy crowds that streamed daily into the Stadium, or surged along the brilliantly-illuminated streets every evening. The red fezes of the Greeks from Macedonia, Epirus, Thrace, and other parts of the Turkish Empire dotted these gatherings by the thousand. To these children of "enslaved Greece," as they call themselves, it was all like a beautiful dream, fraught with patriotic emotion, after the repression and tyranny under which they live ordinarily. Tourists, old and young, and correspondents of many nationalities, crowded the hotel lobbies or pranced abroad furiously with cameras, to the delight of the country-folk come into town for the fêtes, or beset the venders of flags, Olympic pins, and picture postcards. Imagine these throngs of people all in the best of humors for ten consecutive days and nights, with hardly a policeman to be seen, and yet no drunkenness or disorder, of even jostling and pushing.

A notable instance of this characteristic good nature of a Greek crowd occurred every afternoon, when some 50,000 people might be seen waiting in perfect order for their turn to pass through the four narrow exits of the Stadium at the close of the day's games, often making way courteously for some foreign correspondent who was in a hurry to get out. One reason for this good nature may have been the complete absence, so frequently spoken of by Europeans, of spirituous drinks for sale in the streets, among the numerous cold-water and lemonade stands. Not that Athens is a "prohibition" city, but simply because a Greek crowd prefers a glass of cold water to any other beverage.

The great variety of sports on the official programme, of course, made it necessary to hold many of the different contests simultaneously at various points. The Stadium was reserved for the athletic events proper; the other contests taking place elsewhere, mainly in the forenoon, so as to give all contestants an opportunity in the afternoon of being present in the Stadium, where it was but natural that the chief interest should centre.

Since 1906, imitations, more or less faithful, of the Athenian Stadium have been erected in various foreign cities, usually of iron and concrete; but it is safe to say that he who has not seen the Stadium at Athens in all its magnificence of white Pentelic marble, with the glorious Attic sky for a canopy, has no idea of what such an amphitheatre can be at its best. The imposing spectacle on the opening day of the games, as the Kings of England and Greece, with the other royalties, proceeded up the arena to their seats at the circular end, as the athletes of so many nations marched in procession past their majesties, and as King George formally welcomed the foreign athletes and declared the opening of the "second" Olympiad, amid the enthusiastic applause of the vast audience of 60,000 spectators, cannot easily be forgotten. The scene on the day of the Marathon race was even more memorable, and only those who witnessed the wild enthusiasm of the audience in 1896, when a Greek won this race, can imagine what would have happened if a Greek had been equally successful this time. The popular disappointment over the loss of the event can be estimated only by the way in which dwellings, shops and counting-houses, hotels and cafés were deserted on that afternoon in Athens and Piræus. Fully 200,000 people were crowded in and around the Stadium and along the streets leading to the Marathon road, in painful suspense, as the hour approached for the runners to appear. It was therefore the severest possible strain that could have been put upon the sporting spirit and sense of hospitality of the Greek people when Sherring, a Canadian-Irishman, ran into the arena, a full quarter-mile ahead of the next runner. But the people rose grandly to the occasion, and Sherring could not have been cheered more loudly nor lionized more enthusiastically than he was by the Greeks, from that moment of victory in the Stadium to his departure from Greece several days later. This Marathon race has taken such a powerful hold upon the imagination of the Greeks, both high and low, that it has come to be regarded as the national prize *par excellence*, and it is even proposed to confer the citizenship of the demos of Marathon upon every winner of this race.

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The ceremony of awarding the prizes to the victors on the last day of the festival, by the King of Greece, was perhaps the most imposing of all the gatherings in the Stadium. After an exhibition of gymnastic drill by 6,000 Athenian schoolboys, King George stood for two full hours in the hot sun, presenting branches of wild-olive and other trophies to the numerous *Olympionikæ*—firsts, seconds, and thirds in each event. Each victor, as he mounted to the royal platform and bore away the much-coveted *cotinus*, or wild-olive, brought specially for the occasion from the Altis at Olympia, was loudly acclaimed by the spectators, and the climax of applause was reached when, last but not least, a special trophy, sent by the city of Rome to the Crown Prince of Greece (a handsome bronze representing the historic wolf suckling Romulus and Remus), was presented by the King to his eldest son, who had been the chief organizer of this successful festival. Then the close of the Olympic Games was formally proclaimed, and King George, who had presided over the daily gatherings in the Stadium with unwearying endurance and interest, was given a special ovation as he led the way with Queen Olga down the arena and out through the entrance colonnade.

It would be tedious, if not impossible within reasonable limits, to enumerate the various contests and to name the victors in each and all. Suffice it to say, that, in track and field athletics, the American and English athletes practically swept the board. Out of twenty-five first prizes, Americans won eleven, English four, Greeks three, Swedes two, Austrians two, Finlanders, Germans, and Danes one each. Of the second prizes in the same events, America won six, England six, Sweden four, Greece three, Hungary three, etc. In gymnastics the Norwegians and Danes tied for first place, the Swedes being *hors concours;* in swordsmanship, France was preëminent, winning three firsts to Germany's two, Belgium's two, and Greece's one; in shooting the Swiss won five firsts, the French four, the Norwegians three, the English two, the Greeks two. In swimming there were two English firsts, one German first, and one Hungarian first. France won the canoe regatta, Italy the two-oared, four-oared, and six-oared boat races, and Greece the sixteen-oared man-o'war's boat race. In the bicycle races, Italy took three firsts, England two, and France one. In football the Danes beat the Greeks; in tennis France took three firsts, Greece one. In all, counting the pentathlum and hexathlum contests, France took twenty firsts, Italy thirteen, America eleven, England and Canada eleven, Germany ten, Greece nine, Switzerland five, Denmark four, Norway four, Austria three, Hungary three, Sweden, Finland, and Belgium each two, and Bohemia one. Counting firsts, seconds, and thirds together, France leads with forty-four prizes, Greece forty-one, Germany thirty-two, England twenty-six, America twenty-three, Italy twenty-one, Sweden fourteen, etc.

Of course, this latter classification is hardly a fair criterion of the athletic prowess of each nation, for one can scarcely compare the winner of the revolver contest, for instance, to the winner of the Marathon race. Nor can one easily dissociate himself from the Anglo-Saxon conception of athletics, which was also that of the ancient Greek world; and in this conception such sports as swordsmanship and marksmanship have no place, though bicycling may fairly enough be offset against the chariot race. Nor can weight-lifting be considered a very noble sport; although a Greek won this event, more than one Greek was heard to speak of it as a "porters' match," and to wish that Greece might have won any other prize instead. Nevertheless, it would be difficult to exclude all these un-Olympian and un-English sports from a modern international programme; and, this once conceded, it follows that all must be regarded as useful and honorable contributions to athletic life. *Tempora mutantur nos et mutamur in illis.* Let us only hope that the day will never come when automobile races will be admitted to the Olympic programme.

He would indeed be hard to please who should deny that these 1906 Games have been a great success from every point of view; and much credit is due to the organizing committee for having improved so greatly upon the arrangements of 1896. Let us trust that in 1910 the experience gained this year will eliminate whatever shortcomings may have been noticeable in the festivities that have just closed. First and foremost, a central bureau of information for athletes and press representatives is a prime necessity. Something, too, might perhaps be done towards further condensing the preliminary heats of the various athletic contests. Thought should be more especially given to the better arrangement of the final prize distribution. Great inconvenience was experienced, and the spectacle lost much of its impressiveness, owing to the miniature size and unfortunate location of the royal platform with its narrow side-stairs; while the single herald with his megaphone was utterly unable to keep one-fourth of the audience informed as to the name and nationality of each victor. A large platform raised on the final day in the arena, where the straight sides commence, with the athletes grouped in a semi-circle below, and *four* heralds, one on each side of the platform, to proclaim the names of the victors, would give the spectators in every part of the Stadium an equal chance of hearing and seeing. And at the close, the crowned victors should follow the pleasing precedent of 1896, of marching completely around the Stadium, to receive the acclamations of every section of the multitude.

If one might add further suggestions, it would be well to return to the full classic precedent and award the wild-olive trophy in the form of a *wreath*, not as a branch, which can hardly be said to represent anything. The pleasing classic illusion would be further heightened if the victors, when being crowned, should appear in their athletic dress, not in their "Sunday best" frock-coats and silk hats. There should also be a certain forethought exercised by the Olympic Games Committee as to the special prizes; while donors have a perfect right to offer grand trophies for comparatively unimportant events, the Committee should fill up the blanks, so to speak, by providing analogous trophies for the more important events that may have been overlooked.

If all nationalities enjoyed the recent Olympic festival in the Greek capital, they cannot fail to feel a special interest in the effects of these celebrations upon the country whose guests they were. To use Swinburne's words:

"How should we lament not, if her spirit sit in prison!
How should we rejoice not, if her wreaths renew their flowers?
All the world is sweeter if the Athenian violet quicken;
All the world is brighter if the Athenian sun return."

Long centuries of cruel political vicissitudes have numbed the old athletic spirit of the Greeks: but the Olympic Games of 1896 and the princely gift of a restored Stadium by Avéroff have awakened their inherent love of athletics. The Games of 1906, while surrounding the athletic life with a still greater halo, will have another and more beneficent effect upon Greek athletics by opening the eyes of the people to the necessity of earnest, constant, and methodical training as the prime condition of success. And if the Games of 1896 called forth Avéroff's munificent liberality, those of 1906 have evoked an equally public-spirited offer, by two rich Greek merchants of Alexandria, of a great gymnastic institute at Athens, for training the Greek youth after the Swedish system and laying the foundations for a new athletic life in the classic home of athletics.

In America, athletics and athleticism have come to mean, to many people, the opposite of intellectual progress—nay, something bordering on the brutal and animal side of human nature, and hence something to be deprecated and discountenanced. That this view is not without some show of reason, as regards American athletics, cannot be denied—the climax has already been reached in college football; but all athletic life in America appears to have degenerated more or less into a mere scramble for prizes. England is perhaps the only country where the true athletic spirit of the ancient Greeks appears to have survived. With the institution of quadrennial Olympic Games on Greek soil, let us hope that the ancient Greek traditions and ideals will infuse themselves into the world's athletic life, and raise its moral tone and standards, so as to make athletics once more a great and noble power for what is good and beautiful.

D. K.

Correspondence.

DR. CRAPSEY ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent, J. A. Bartholomew, in your issue of May 31, seems to have a very erroneous idea of the Crapsey trial. He asks, "What boots it whether Christ were born of a virgin or sprang from the head of Jove? His ethics are the same." Mr. Bartholomew's ethics, like Dr. Crapsey's, seem to be very hazy. He advises to let the creed stand, but to disbelieve it. That is simply to be dishonest. The second part of the Apostles' Creed contains no statement of dogma or doctrine, but asserts as facts certain occurrences which are either historically true or untrue. When Dr. Crapsey stands up in

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his chancel, twice every Sunday, and in the face of God and of the congregation solemnly asserts his belief in the truth of those facts, and then, fifteen minutes afterwards, from the pulpit, tells the same congregation that those alleged facts are no facts, he is guilty of the grossest immorality, and is not fit to be a teacher of ethics in the Episcopal or any other church. He should at least qualify his statements with the words "in a Pickwickian sense."

I think it was Sydney Smith who said that Newman's Tract 90 was an ingenious argument to show how a man could hold a benefice in the Church of England while teaching all the doctrines of the Church of Rome. Dr. Crapsey seems to me to be struggling to retain his position as rector of an endowed parish while denying the creed upon which his church is built. R.

Notes.

Mr. George Haven Putnam resumes authorship with a work which his own firm will publish in the autumn, viz., 'The Censorship of the Church, and its Influence upon the Production and Distribution of Literature.' Messrs. Putnam further announce the second volume of Prof. W. A. Cooper's translation of Bielschowski's Life of Goethe, of which the MS. escaped destruction in the earthquake havoc at Leland Stanford University; and Ernest Babelon's 'Manual of Oriental Antiquities,' translated by B. T. A. Betts, of the Department of Egyptian and Assyrian Antiquities at the British Museum.

The Salem (Mass.) Press Co. is nearly ready to print a bibliographic index to the literature on Massachusetts local history, in one stout volume of 600 pages, coming down to the present year. This 'Guide' has been prepared by Charles A. Flagg, head cataloguer of American history at the Library of Congress. His researches have gone into unpublished works in manuscript, and to important newspaper articles.

"The Letters of Charles Lamb,' in the charming pocket Newnes-Scribner series, embrace 273 epistles, so many to the poets (with so much of his own verse) that the little book is especially apt for the lover of verse and the student of poetic criticism to carry about and dally with in an idle hour. But the proofreading should have been better—witness the foot of page 43. Like converse will also repay in the companion volume of the 'Sacred Poems of Henry Vaughan'; and the 'Lyra Innocentium' of John Keble will have its devotees, if to a waning extent.

To the "Royal Library" of Arthur L. Humphreys, London, belong two distinguished-looking volumes, tastefully printed on a fine handmade paper in bold black type, with broad margins, in paper covers (or boards). The one, Pierre de Nolhac's 'Marie Antoinette the Queen,' an octavo, represents the historical division, while John Morley's 'Literary Essays,' a small quarto, exemplifies the belles-lettres; and there is still a third division, the ethical, of smaller dimensions and cheaper. Few publications are better fitted to be read by artificial light. Morley's Essays are on Byron, Carlyle, Macaulay, Wordsworth, and the Study of Literature.

A series of "The Great Etchers," similar in form and get-up to "The Drawings of the Great Masters," and by the same publishers (Newnes-Scribner), is initiated with the 'Etchings of Van Dyck.' The text, by Frank Newbolt, is more significant than has generally been the case in the books of the companion series, giving, in brief compass, a fair idea of the position of Van Dyck as an etcher, and of his share in each of the plates that bear his name. The reproductions are excellent, and exhibit, in several cases, different states of the same plate, so that one is enabled to see just what happened to the etchings in the hands of the engravers who took them up when Van Dyck had done with them. The only one entirely completed by the artist himself, the portrait of Vorsterman, makes us the more regret the collaboration admitted to the others, nor can we agree with Mr. Newbolt that this plate would have been finer if "all the figure below the collar had been merely indicated by a few lines," as is the case with the first state of some of the others. The brilliancy and color given by the costume are, to us, a distinct gain, while the freedom of the line is entirely in harmony with the magnificent handling of the head. Lest we should be unjust to the ability of the engravers, two or three plates are introduced to show what they could do when they were not hampered by the impossible task of reconciling their precise burin work with the play of Van Dyck's needle. There should be many people capable of appreciating fine etching, but unable to own original proofs, and to such this volume will be greatly welcome.

The publishers of the "Langham Series" (Scribners) should have secured some one to write the monograph on 'Rossetti' who knew more about art and the history of Pre-Raphaelitism than Mr. H. W. Singer. The editor's occasional note of disagreement is not sufficient to discount the blunders of the author, and the calm assumption that Rossetti was "the chief founder of the Pre-Raphaelite school," and gave it the "first impetus," is calculated to arouse once more that wrath at the world's injustice which Holman Hunt has recently vented in two mighty volumes. The little book is distinctly below the standard of the series.

Another of the ever-growing list of books whose excellent intention is the instruction of the world at large in the appreciation of art, comes to us in 'How to Look at Pictures,' by Robert Clermont Witt (Putnams). Its contents are marked by tranquil common sense. There is nothing in it which is not true, and nothing, perhaps, which may not still be novel to some part of the great public. We are willing to concede to it a probable usefulness; and, at least, it is a presentable volume with a number of reproductions of well-known pictures sufficiently well executed to be capable of giving pleasure.

There are a good many people who like to have at their command all possible sources of information in regard to the subject-matter of their recreations or their more serious avocations. Such persons, if inclined to play with gardening on a small scale, will read with interest a little volume entitled 'The Seasons in a Flower Garden,' by Louise Shelton (Scribners). The directions in this book for amateurs are not vague; on the contrary, they are rather explicit, although partaking of the general style of the information given in most good plant-catalogues. The task of preparing the soil, selecting the kinds of plants for different times of blooming, and their treatment throughout, must certainly be made easy by the care which the author has bestowed upon this unobtrusive record of her own work in the garden. It could be wished that the descriptions of the plants themselves might have been more detailed and less vague, but the information given is not misleading. The book supplements, but cannot replace, the formal garden handbooks.

We extend to William Crooke's 'Things Indian' (Scribners) a restricted welcome. The *Things* books ("Chinese" and "Japanese" began a series continued with this volume) are not altogether satisfactory. Arranged like an encyclopædia in alphabetical order, they give the effect of a torso. The little essays under each selected head are usually accurate, and as a complement to the revised *Hobson-Jobson*, of which Mr. Crooke was editor, the present 'Things' has its use. But at best such a book is a rather disjointed collection of observations, and seems more like fragments of a larger work than a complete whole. We sincerely hope the series will not be continued. In this particular case, Mr. Crooke has eked out his profound knowledge of present-day conditions with more or less superficial historical studies, and the result is not quite pleasing. Thus we find "Baid" but "Veda," though both should begin with the same letter. Under the head of "Idolatry" it is stated that the "images in Vedic times" included "one of Rudra specially mentioned," which is incorrect. Under "Irrigation," the "artificial" water supply of the Rig-Veda should be referred to. Under "Rosary" it should be said that the Buddhists borrowed the use not from "the Hindus," but from the Shiva sect. For cannibalism one has to discover what the author wishes to say under H(uman Sacrifice), without cross-reference, and then one finds no mention of the best-known cannibalism (traditionally preserved by the word Piçaca), and none of the very interesting case of commutation (the crucifixion of a monkey substituted for a man) given separately under the head "Monkeys." Under "Horse" there is no mention of racing (Vedic and epic). Nevertheless, Mr. Crooke's volume, if one does but regard it as a complement of the 'Anglo-Indian Glossary,' is full of valuable matter, especially in all that appertains to modern India. Instead of a second edition (for which some Sanskritist should act as collaborator), it were to be desired that the work might be extended. There is real need of something less inclusive than Balfour and more complete than 'Things.' As the work now stands, it attracts more attention to its defects than to its very real excellences. Almost any one interested in anything may find something in 'Things Indian.' The student of religion will find much, the student of the drama will find a little, the student of art and custom will also be benefited. But it is pot-luck at this scrappy table. One is never sure whether the all-important sub-

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ject is to be represented or not. A wider circle of subjects, more intimate acquaintance with Sanskrit literature, and Mr. Crooke's unrivalled knowledge of India as it is would produce a work of very great value.

The Asiatic Society of Japan sends forth Part II. of Volume XXXIII., containing two important articles, on Village Life in Japan, by Prof. Arthur Lloyd, and the Ten Buddhistic Virtues, by Rev. R. W. Atkinson. Before 1868, village government under the head, or mayor, was a hereditary despotism. Now, the village head is elective, but the common sense of the Japanese peasants has discarded the tumultuous and factious party methods of the first new years of freedom, and they choose their magistrates on business principles, and not on party lines. As a rule, the villager, on all social anniversaries at least, clings to the old calendar. A specimen constitution of a carpenters' guild in a village, with notices of birth, marriage, and funeral customs, is given. A Buddhist sermon preached in 1773 shows that Buddhistic and Christian ethics are very similar. The fundamental doctrine of Ingwa—cause and effect, recompense and retribution—is set forth as an immutable law of Nature and Providence, with many taking popular illustrations.

When, in 1894, by the Shimonoseki Treaty, Formosa was ceded by China to Japan, instead of easy occupation, four months of fighting were necessary. Employing 135,000 men in all services, the Japanese found resistance by the Chinese and savages, who were aided by mandarins on the mainland, more desperate than in Mantchuria, and their losses were greater. Their peaceful work having begun December 1st, 1894, the results, as tabulated in English in the bound book of 79 pages entitled 'The Progress of Taiwan (Formosa) for Ten Years, 1895-1904,' seem wonderful. Colored maps and diagrams, with statistics under fifteen heads, aid the eye. Within a coast line of a thousand miles, and on an area, including all the islands, of 58,000 square miles, there are twenty prefectures. The copper-colored aborigines, formerly head-hunters and the terror of civilized commerce, are now for the most part, like the Chinese and Japanese, in day schools. The 2,577,104 inhabitants live in 573,038 dwellings, and there are 53,365 Japanese, or 18.30 in a thousand. There are twenty-seven cities having a population of over 5,000. Taihoku is the model in cleanliness, water supply, hospital, etc. The vital statistics are very full and detailed; infectious diseases leading, those of the respiratory organs coming next, and kakké, or beri-beri, surprisingly in the rear (964 cases in 1904). Agriculture, industries, commerce, and communications show astonishing expansion. In railways, postal service, public sanitation, telegraphs, education for Japanese, natives, and aborigines, the progress is fair. Casualties from attacks of the mountain savages show steady reduction (681 in 1890 to 394 in 1900), most of the victims being Chinese natives. The revenue rose from 2,616,660 yen in 1896 to 22,333,115 yen in 1904. The statistics of penology and administration are also interesting. Gen. Kodama, who directed the strategy of the war with Russia, and was military administrator of Formosa, has been called to office in Tokio, but Dr. Goto Shimpei continues as civil governor.

We remark in the April number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* "The Masonic Chronology of Benjamin Franklin," compiled by Julius F. Sachse, and Mr. Charles Henry Hart's call for a search for the Franklin family portraits, indicated in several extracts from the correspondence. Also, the certification of the burial-place of the novelist, Charles Brockden Brown, in the Friends' Burial-Ground, Arch and Fourth Streets, Philadelphia (the mound now obliterated); and a local item of July 24, 1825, in the same city, recording the imposition of a fine of 67 cents on one John Walker, "for firing of a cracker or Squib on this day on the Publick Street"—a most commendable precedent.

Interest in education in England at the present time is not confined to the subjects treated in the bill now before Parliament. What is and what is not suitable for the reading of children is a question which has recently been decided by the London County Council. It has revised the list of books to be given as prizes to the pupils of the public elementary schools, and among the books to be removed as not proper for the perusal of children are 'Hypatia,' 'Pendennis,' 'Romola,' 'Dombey and Son,' and 'Great Expectations.' To the revised list have been added 'Little Women' and 'What Katy Did,' a noteworthy tribute to American authors. A writer in the *Guardian*, while regretting that the works of Kingsley and Dickens should give place to those of Miss Alcott and "Susan Coolidge," believes that the replacing of 'Romola' by the 'Rose-colored 'Bus' will be hard on the rising generation.

The "Waldschulen" are a new educational experiment now making in Germany, on the progress of which there was a very favorable report at the recent convention of the Berlin Vaterländischer Frauenverein, under whose auspices the innovation has been introduced. The purpose is to provide in the woods, under proper medical and hygienic care, schools and homes for children physically not in a condition to attend the public schools. The first school of this kind was started in the West End of Charlottenburg in August, 1904, and this school alone now numbers 240 pupils. The selection of the children is made by the regular public-school physicians; and the course of study, which is not quite as heavy as that of the ordinary schools, is also determined under the supervision of medical men. The report states that, both from a sanitary and a pedagogical point of view, the experiment is an entire success, as the first year showed a remarkable improvement in the health of 62 per cent. of the children, and 25 per cent. could be declared perfectly cured. The children on the average gained 8½ pounds each last summer. The total cost of the Charlottenburg school for the six months' course was 17,000 marks. The movement is spreading into other parts of Germany, but not extensively as yet.

In the Leipzig *Daheim*, No. 29, we find an instructive and finely illustrated article on the recent first international bookbinders' exhibition held in Frankfort. In the article accompanying the illustrations the writer states that this is the outcome of a movement traceable no further back than 1895; further, that, in view of the exhibits at Frankfort, the Germans must confess that both the French and the English have done superior artistic work in binding, and must take a lesson from them. Germany had nothing to show that could be called a "Meisterwerk."

The Germans are to make another and more determined attempt to erect a monument to Heine, this time under the auspices of the Hamburg Literarische Gesellschaft, consisting chiefly of representatives of literature and the theatre. An appeal for funds has been published, which is signed also by the three presidents of the corporation, prominent merchants, and other representative men.

The *Tribuna* of Rome reports that in the near future a geographical mission will go out from that city to Tripolis, with a view to making exact geographical researches in the latter region.

On the 30th of August of the coming year it will be fifty years since the first railroad was opened for business in the Argentine Republic. The Government has decided to celebrate the anniversary by an International Railroad Exposition in Buenos Aires, to be opened on the date mentioned.

—Secretary Trueblood, of the American Peace Society, writes in the June *Atlantic* of the Hague Conference and the future of arbitration. The fact that the armaments of the great Powers are larger and more burdensome than ever, should not blind our eyes to the fact that the vast majority of international disputes are no longer settled by these armaments, but by arbitration, which will soon begin to make inroads on the armaments themselves as it has already done on their use. For the coming conference Mr. Trueblood expresses the earnest hope that it "will not be allowed to degenerate into a sort of war congress for the mere regulation of campaigns and battles, of the kind of bullets and explosives which armies and navies may use in the killing of men and other similar details of the barbarous art of fighting." Prof. T. N. Carver of Harvard discusses possible methods for the distribution of wealth, showing the advantages of that which is based upon a free field for individual effort, acting under an adequate legal guarantee of equality of opportunity. Of course, this involves the prohibition of methods of competition not based on service rendered, but on such unfair and underhand advantages as have been brought to the attention of the public by the discussion of the relation of railway discriminations to the building up of some of the great monopolies of the present time. Arthur Symons contributes a critical paper on Landor as a poet, arriving at the conclusion that one must go to his prose rather than his verse for his most sincere feeling, though the best things in his prose are due primarily to the fact that his genius is essentially that of the poet. In either medium, however, his relation to his subjects is always external. "No one in prose or in verse has written more finely about things; but he writes *about* them, he does not write them."

—The best things in *Scribner's* are of a light and interesting type, in harmony

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with the approach of the vacation season. Louise Imogen Guiney, in a sprightly little essay, penetrates the barriers of the alleged "English reserve" only to find that the fortress has long since been deserted. "The average Englishman, certainly, is still; and he is so not because he is a paragon of restraint, but because spiritual inertness is the basis of his being." The real life which Englishmen have been superstitiously regarded as holding in careful reserve, slipped off to America with the early emigrants, and when it does occasionally appear in the old home it is in the breast of the bare-headed Virginian or New Englander, "talking and sparkling in a London gallery full of sepulchral hats and monocles." Life can exist but as it expresses itself, and the only hope that still remains to our English cousins is to develop what vital germs remain to them by casting off the empty shell of reserve and cultivating the fruitful habit of self-expression. The editor discusses in a half-humorous but seriously suggestive vein the circus element in American drama. As with the circus which Barnum devised and perfected decades ago, the underlying motive in the contemporary drama is the doing of amazing "stunts." The society play exhibits the dauntless American maiden doing the social "limit" unscathed, and received finally into the waiting arms of some good American, after the lairs of a foreign nobility and the cunning devices of a complex social code have been passed in safety. Another series of Mr. Curtis's Indian photographs is presented, dealing with the tribes of the Northwest plains. The tints used in reproduction have been brightened considerably, as compared with those of the May number, but we do not feel that the change is an improvement. There is room for still further experiment if the remarkable work of Mr. Curtis with his camera is to be presented to the public in its most effective guise.

—The second volume of Dr. Elroy M. Avery's 'History of the United States' (Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Co.) maintains in general the level of its predecessor, and in some important respects shows improvement. There is the same skilful choice of incident and the same orderly arrangement of topics. The literary style, while still at times exuberant and overdone, is better, though rigorous pruning is still necessary if this ambitious work is to rank as a successful literary performance. The numerous illustrations are admirably chosen and, as a rule, finely executed, though some of the portraits are poor. The maps cannot be too highly praised. In short, so far as mechanism and apparatus are concerned, the volume is a notable piece of book-making; and the text, notwithstanding its literary shortcomings, is certainly readable. The period covered by the volume—substantially the first sixty years of the seventeenth century—does not admit of much novelty in arrangement or treatment in a popular work; and one can only hope that Dr. Avery's success in dealing with comparatively simple situations may not forsake him when he comes to more complicated happenings. The text shows, as a whole, unusual accuracy, though a few errors, some of them not easily explicable, have crept in. The statement, for example, that "the transition from the proprietary and corporate colony to the royal province is one of the most characteristic features" in the period covered by the volume (p. 31), is of course true, not of the period before 1660, but of the period after that date. The omission of any account of Cromwell's colonial policy from the otherwise important chapter on "The Evolution of a Colonial System" is singular; and the indication of the party positions in the conflict in Maryland, in 1653-55, is both confused and misleading. Berkeley could not have been a Carolina proprietor in April, 1661 (p. 194); and Virginia did not hold all her territorial claims under the charters of 1609 and 1612 until 1788 (p. 53), but until 1784, when the western lands were ceded. Special mention should be made of the notes accompanying the list of illustrations. We wish that the author would not assert his theories of historical writing so stridently in his preface; it adds nothing to the value of his book, and the theories themselves are neither novel nor illuminating. This 'History,' like every other, must speak for itself, whatever the author may think about it; and we are glad to see that it is, on the whole, speaking very well.

—The alphabet has been kind to the two final volumes of the 'Jewish Encyclopædia' (Funk & Wagnalls Co.), and has enabled it to close in not only characteristic picturesqueness, but also definite value. Besides the general mass of journeyman and even apprentice articles, biographical, geographical, Biblical, ritual, and antiquarian, the following stand out: French Sanhedrin, the Jewish high court convened by Napoleon to determine whether Judaism created an *imperium in imperio;* Saul of Tarsus, a very queer document, in which the extremest conclusions of Van Manen are pressed into Jewish service; Scroll of the Law, which shows several excellent illustrations, and Seals, which has a long series of most suggestive impressions. Shabbethai Zebi gives an account of the external events only of the life of that extraordinary claimant of the Messiahship—his cabalistic basis might have been dealt with; Spain has a long article of melancholy reading, as indeed are almost all the local histories; on Spinoza there is also a long and readable article well illustrated (the frontispiece of the volume is from a portrait painted by Wallerant Vaillant); Statistics gives elaborate details on Jewish population; on Synagogue there are twenty pages well illustrated; a compound article, almost twice as long, deals with Talmud. Temple, Title-page, Tombs, Typography are full and most strikingly illustrated; inserted in the last is Steinschneider's list of printers in a shortened form, but still filling fourteen pages; of countries, Turkey and the United States are naturally most detailed. The last prominent articles, except for a five-page biography of Zunz, are suitably those on Zionism, and on the cabalistic theosophy of the 'Zohar'—a dream of the future and dreams of the past for a people whose national existence has been and must be so much a dream. One dream realized, however, is this completed encyclopædia; on it we extend our congratulations to editors and publishers.

—It had been the intention of Count de Castries to write a history of Morocco, for which, at first sight, the bibliographies on that country suggested an ample accumulation of accessible material. But he soon found that the bibliographies failed him, and that essential material was still in MS. Yet "history," he quotes from Mark Pattison, "cannot be written from manuscripts." This comes close to saying that history cannot be written at all; to have to print a *corpus* of documents before writing a history, would mean that none but millionaires could write history. Such a Moroccan thesaurus, however, he has now attempted under the title 'Les Sources Inédites de l'Histoire du Maroc de 1530 à 1845' (Paris: Ernest Leroux, Vol. I., pp. xvi., 684). His period and his collection he has divided into three: the Sa'dite dynasty, 1530-1660, and the Filalite, 1660-1757 and 1757-1845. The documents are classified in each of these divisions according to the countries where they are found, the present volume embracing the first half of those in the French archives and libraries bearing on the Sa'dite dynasty, and extending to the fatal defeat of the Portuguese at el-Qasr el-Kabir, in 1578, when Sebastian vanished in the rout like James IV. at Flodden, leaving strange tales, and Morocco was freed for three hundred years. That great event balanced Lepanto in one way, and supplemented it in another. The European attack on north Africa was checked, and Portugal fell to Spain till 1640. Almost half the volume is given to narratives of it; it is probably the one battle on Moroccan soil which all European date-books give. If this series, then, is carried out, it will be possible for the first time to write its story and learn how Portugal finally collapsed after its golden century.

—Except for the apparently unavoidable but practically most cumbrous division of documents according to their present habitat, Count de Castries's plan seems excellent. The documents are given with diplomatic exactness, accompanied by French translations when Arabic or Dutch—some might have preferred translations of the Portuguese papers. There are sufficient introductions, abstracts, and notes. The rendering of Oriental names is a sore subject everywhere, and the editor here is at least intelligible. He has added a full equipment of maps, tables of dynasties, and a facsimile of a Moorish letter, palæographically interesting. But it is not only the Arabist or the student of Morocco who will find his interest here. Every browser in sixteenth-century history of the broadest will almost certainly be able to pick out his plum. Morocco was no hermit country then; threads from it ran through all Europe. Elizabeth of England was in correspondence with its princes, and Francis I. in treaty. Sir Thomas Stukeley, gentleman of Devon, Marquis of Leinster, Duke of Ireland, what not, ended his checkered career fighting beside Sebastian, and George Peele celebrated him in his "Battle of Alcazar." That the volumes of this thesaurus may increase must be the prayer of every student of history.

—One wonders if the figures some writers

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have given us showing a marvellously low percentage of disease in the Japanese army have really been accurately compiled, or at least if they are comprehensive of all diseases, when he reads the preliminary report of Dr. Maxmillan Herzog, a Philippine Government pathologist who was sent to Japan to study beri-beri in the military hospitals. He says that "the total number of cases of beri-beri which developed in the Japanese army during this period [beginning of war to end of 1905] is to be placed at a minimum of from 75,000 to 80,000." He was sent to Japan when reports of the spread of beri-beri in the Japanese army in Mantchuria reached the Philippines, where this disease is quite common, though not so common as in some other parts of the tropical and sub-tropical Orient. He himself credits the Japanese medical corps with having succeeded in preventing any serious outbreak of typhoid, typhus, dysentery, or scorbutus, and having prevented entirely the appearance of cholera and plague in the rank and file of their fighting forces. Beri-beri, however, gave them a serious problem by the end of 1904, as the hospital figures indicate; soldiers incapacitated by this disease being sent home in increasing numbers during late 1904 and early 1905 "to so great an extent that probably no outside observer, during the progress of the war, had any conception of it." Dr. Herzog gives tables showing, during 1904, 50,340 cases developed in the field, of which 1,024 died, while 3,337 cases developed among soldiers in Japan, 44 dying.

—Dr. Herzog says, however, that it would be "a great injustice to blame the Japanese army medical corps for this great epidemic. . . . Beri-beri is a disease the etiology of which is ill understood at the present time. We neither know its specific cause, nor by what route the specific poison, whatever it may be, enters the body. It is a well-known fact that, given certain conditions, no ordinary means of hygiene and sanitation will prevent the outbreak and spreading of beri-beri. Such conditions are encountered in a particularly susceptible race, especially when they are crowded together, and in certain localities. When these factors are present, nothing less than the abandonment of the locality which is apparently infected and the dispersion of the susceptible individuals will prevent the continual spreading of the disease. Of course, such measures as these could not be very well resorted to in the case of an army in the field and in the presence of the enemy. To repeat, given certain environments and certain compulsory conditions, *kakke* (beri-beri's Japanese name), in the present state of our knowledge, cannot be considered to be a preventable disease." Several of the Japanese doctors now believe they have segregated from the blood and urine of patients the specific micro-organism which produces beri-beri, and Dr. Herzog's experiments with them were in part corroborative. It is interesting to note that, "in the Japanese military service, autopsies can be held only after special permission from the family of the dead person is received, and this permission is only very rarely given." This preliminary report of Dr. Herzog is published in the second number (that for February last) of the new *Philippine Journal of Science*, published by the Bureau of Science at Manila.

HENRY SIDGWICK.

Henry Sidgwick: A Memoir. By A. S. and E. M. S. Macmillan Co. 1906.

The authors of this biography of Sidgwick—his brother and widow—have considered that their object would be best attained by a narrative largely consisting of extracts from his own letters. These letters, they think, sufficiently resemble his talk to bring his personality vividly before those who knew him, and in some measure before readers who never saw him. As to the latter class, we fear that the object has been but imperfectly attained; and for the reason that the letters, as here given, do not sufficiently resemble his talk. That this was incomparably delightful appears from the testimony of many witnesses of the highest competency. So much cannot be said of the letters as a whole. Many of them are not greatly above the level of ordinary epistolary communications, and many disclose little of what was actually going on in their author's life. Thus, to take a wife is, even for a philosopher, an important transaction. He cannot be supposed to be quite superior to the feverish condition known as falling in love; some degree of emotional excitement is implied in forming the union. Without indelicacy, it would seem possible to intimate that the thought of entering the matrimonial state occupied more than a momentary interval of time, and gave rise to some serious reflections. Yet the matter is dismissed in a few lines, and, so far as we are told, involved no more attention than is commonly given to the selection of a wall-paper.

We are far from insisting that it is the duty of a biographer to give particulars concerning relations which refined people regard as having a sacred privacy. On the contrary, it seems more dignified to say as little as possible about them. But, if this course be adopted, it is not easy to bring a personality vividly before readers—too much has to be left out; and, in Sidgwick's case, as nothing was more conspicuous than his scrupulous, even fastidious, regard for the feelings of others, so his biographers have omitted from his letters every sentence, every word even, that might wound a living soul. How much this means we cannot tell; but it probably means a good deal. A man keenly alive to the humorous, possessing a most alert and subtle wit, in constant attrition with people who incessantly maintained irrational and contradictory propositions as sacred truths, must have freed his mind to his friends in language that gladdened their hearts. Again, we do not contend that such things should be repeated. They cannot be repeated in a memoir that appears immediately after death; but, if they are not repeated, the personality must lose in vividness.

We hasten to say that these strictures apply in the main to the first third of the book, covering Sidgwick's life till he was some thirty years old. A good deal might have been omitted here, and the book thereby improved, for the interest of these early years is not so great as to demand this disproportionate treatment. When the biographers adopt the narrative form, they succeed admirably, and the later letters tell us far more of the thought and achievement of the man than the earlier ones. During his later years, too, Sidgwick kept a journal, intermittently enough, it is true, but it is of the greatest value as showing what was really in his mind and nearest his heart. Here, again, we are helped by an occasional letter addressed to him, and by the posthumous estimates of his friends. From these materials it is possible to obtain a pretty complete knowledge of the man, as a philosopher and as a citizen. We can hardly say so much of what we learn of him as an educator or as an organizer. His influence upon the higher education of women must have been very great, but it is not easy to estimate it properly from what we are here told. We know that he gave generously to Newnham College; generously of his money, and even more of his time and energy. We know that the results were gratifying, that the success was even splendid. But just how it was brought about is not so clear as we should like to have it; and the same is true to some extent of his relations to his own college and university.

These, however, are comparatively unimportant particulars. We have enough evidence before us, in Sidgwick's writings and in what is here told, to enable us to understand his character. He was a man of singular, almost superhuman, perfection. With himself and with his friends he was absolutely candid; with others his candor was limited only by his courtesy. He had the experience common to educated Englishmen of the last generation, when the new wine of free discussion was put into the old bottles of religious orthodoxy. To discard the creed in which one has been nurtured, which has entwined itself with the very heartstrings, which is sanctified by the sweetest associations, and which satisfies the most sacred longings, is not easy. It is easier for most people to avoid the struggle, and many consider it right not to disclose their loss of faith. Nothing of the kind was possible for Sidgwick, although we find no evidence that he suffered the agony of which we know so many pathetic instances. But the process was peculiar. For many years—his only wasted time—he strove to find some basis for the Christian religion in the study of Arabic and Hebrew. This quest failing, he turned to the investigation of the phenomena of what we call spiritualism; not, in this case, altogether unprofitably.

The motive for this inquiry was in some sense twofold. As a man he longed, as mankind has always longed, and perhaps always will, to find some empirical evidence for immortality. When he was at last convinced—not till he was nearly fifty—that no such evidence existed, the crisis was a serious one. He had been inclined, with Kant, to "*postulate* the continued existence of the soul, in order to effect that harmony of Duty with Happiness" which seemed to him indispensable to rational moral life. He could not comprehend the state of mind of those who, like his friend J. A. Symonds, do not *desire* the continuance of their personal being; but he was even more affected as a moralist than as a man.

We must quote a few lines to explain his position:

"If I decide that this search [for empirical evidence] is a failure, shall I finally and decisively make this postulate? Can I, consistently with my whole view of truth and the method of its attainment? And if

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I answer 'No' to each of these questions, have I any ethical system at all? And if not, can I continue to be professor and absorb myself in the mere erudition of the subject? . . . I have mixed up the personal and general questions because every speculation of this kind ends, with me, in a practical problem, 'What is to be done here and now?' That is a question which I must answer; whereas as to the riddle of the universe—I never had the presumption to hope that its solution was reserved for me, though I had to try."

Perhaps we should explain his position more fully. He had aimed to establish morality not "somehow," but logically, as a reasoned system, and he had argued that this could not be done if we were limited to merely mundane sanctions, owing to the inevitable divergence between the individual's duty and his happiness. If empirical proof failed, did any rational basis remain? The only basis, at all events, was the demand of the soul, the inextinguishable hope, so nobly expressed by Tennyson in the lines beginning—

"If e'en when faith had fallen asleep,"

which Sidgwick could never read without tears. In them he felt "the indestructible and inalienable minimum of faith which humanity cannot give up because it is necessary for life; and which I know that I, at least so far as the man in me is deeper than the methodical thinker, cannot give up."

Such degree of faith he retained, holding the beliefs in God and immortality to be vital to human wellbeing, and though not demonstrable, still not irrational. The Christian religion was another matter, and while he came to regard it as, from a sociological point of view, indispensable and irreplaceable, his intellectual alienation from it was strong. At the same time his relations with many of the clergy were most intimate, and nothing could be more genuine than the affectionate testimony of these friends to his admirable character. We cannot resist quoting a few words from a sermon preached at Trinity College by Bishop Westcott:

"Hope born in a time of doubt from an unfaltering belief in the reality of truth was, I think, one of the most conspicuous features in Professor Sidgwick's nature. Great in range and exactness of knowledge, great in subtlety of analysis, great in power of criticism, he was still greater in character. He offered the highest type of a seeker after truth, more anxious to understand an opponent's argument than to refute him; watchful lest any element in a discussion should be left unnoticed; patient, reverent, ready to the last to welcome light from any quarter; a champion always of things just, and pure, and lovely."

We might well close with this tribute, but it seems desirable to say a word concerning some misconceptions of Sidgwick's character and his method. Prof. Alfred Marshall sneered at him because he had but a handful of men in his lecture room, while T. H. Green drew a crowd. This led Sidgwick to enter in his journal his own view of his failure to attract men on a large scale. He applied to himself Bagehot's comment on Clough—whom in many respects he resembled: "He saw what it is considered cynical to see—the absurdities of many persons, the pomposities of many creeds, the splendid zeal with which missionaries rush on to teach what they do not know; the wonderful earnestness with which most incomplete solutions of the universe are thrust upon us as complete and satisfying." Feeling that the deepest truth he had to tell was by no means "good tidings," he shrank from exercising on others the personal influence which would make them like him as much as they might men more optimistic, who aimed at exercising such influence. Hence as a teacher he desired to limit his teaching to those whose bent or deliberate choice it was to search after ultimate truth, and to these he tried to tell all he knew; as to others, he wished to train their faculties without guiding their judgment. He neither would nor could say anything which would make his philosophy popular.

Man, as Dean Swift said, is not a rational animal, but at most only *capax rationis*. One who, like Sidgwick, will teach nothing as truth unless it is supported by reason or is not in conflict with it, can have few disciples. One who, like him, will do nothing that reason does not justify or at least not condemn, will seem to the world to waste himself in subtleties. The thought and the life of most men are almost wholly unrational; their acts are the result of feeling, of prejudice, of habit and custom, and they have little patience with the few who never do anything without consulting reason and conscience. Doubter or not, few men have done more enduring work in philosophy than Sidgwick, and his 'Methods of Ethics' will remain the final word on the fundamentals of that science. His own criticism of his work and his doctrine brings out the paradox that makes his personality so fascinating. Morality, as he taught, cannot subsist rationally without some supernatural basis; yet he, who was compelled to abandon the basis on which most men build, was the incarnation of exalted morality. His modest words of parting—commending to the love of God with silent prayer the soul of a sinful man who partly tried to do his duty—point to the solution of the paradox. Religions may come and go, but the moral law endures like the starry heaven; and, with or without the sanction of reason, men will continue to try to do their duty.

COLLINS'S STUDIES IN POETRY AND CRITICISM.

Studies in Poetry and Criticism. By John Churton Collins. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. 1905.

It is about five years since the *Ephemera Critica*, 'Plain Truths about Current Literature,' shook the complacency of certain of those whom Mr. Churton Collins sarcastically called "Our Literary Guides." At least, it must have been nervous work for Messrs. Le Gallienne and Saintsbury and Gosse and W. M. Rossetti—to put together for the moment names which represent far from equal values for the student of literature—to have to encounter the remorseless evidence of their lack of care or lack of scholarship which Mr. Collins showed up with equal gusto and accuracy. We doubt whether the slashing Quarterlies in the days of their tyranny were ever quite so destructive as Mr. Collins. They usually damned their victims for modes of expression, their criticisms were chiefly æsthetic, and the writer, if he had any backbone, was able to retort the *J'ai plus de goût que vous*, which a Frenchman has called the last word of æstheticism. But when Mr. Collins goes forth to the chase, his game is not so much the author as the critic. He is the critic's critic, a second Aristarchus, and very few modern critics have sufficient training to pass his examination in the matter of scholarship.

In the present volume we have him in a milder mood. "The lion smiles," as a scholiast said of Thucydides when, for the moment, the great historian had come down to his level and could be understood. No sensitive writer need fear to read these essays, though perhaps Prof. Rhys Roberts may suffer a slight pang when he finds that Mr. Collins has devoted the one appendix in the book to pointing out a few errors of scholarship in the well-known edition of Longinus. The seven essays are not exactly book reviews, though most of them were inspired by issues of editions of books. They are rather independent expressions of the very valuable views of Mr. Collins—the impeccable views we had almost said, for he is a rare case of a critic clothed in the armor of sound and wide erudition.

It is all the more pleasing to find him refraining from the vindictive manner. The studies here collected are not, we are informed in the preface, merely reprints, though all save one have appeared in print before. They have been enlarged and revised, and in any case will now appeal to a circle of readers who will always instinctively prefer to have their literary criticism, when it is not ephemeral, in book form. The articles on "The Poetry and Poets of America," which first appeared in the *North American Review*, were, we believe, the first just and not patronizing estimate of American poetry that ever came at any such length from an English pen. They should have some effect on the American anthologists of the future, partly in making them more reserved, more cautious to select only the best, since a 'Meleager's Garland' is worth more than a 'Palatine Anthology.'

The essay on the thirteen-volume edition of Byron published by Murray under the editorship of Prothero and Coleridge may wound the feelings of Byron's admirers—those at any rate who see their Byron through Matthew Arnold's eyes. Arnold made Swinburne's fine phrase, "the splendid and imperishable excellence of sincerity and strength," the keynote of his essay which prefaced his selections from Byron. Where he dwelt on the poet's hours of sincerity, Mr. Collins emphasizes his insincerity, the note of falsetto. Arnold took Byron's word for it that he habitually wrote in haste, and with none of the patient labor that the true artist bestows on his work. Scott's truly Philistine saying that Byron "manages his pen with the careless and negligent ease of a man of quality"—words which poor Byron would have accepted complacently—Arnold turned against him as evidence of artistic inferiority. But since Arnold's day we have the more complete revelations of the Journals and Letters, and we find, as Mr. Collins points out at some length, that Byron's morbid anxiety that the public should believe that he composed without effort or deliberation was simply a pose. His shipwreck in 'Don Juan,' for instance, "constructed out of passages dovetailed from Dalzell's 'Shipwrecks and Disasters at Sea,'

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Hartford's 'Remarkable Shipwrecks,' Bligh's 'Narrative of the Mutiny of the *Bounty*,' and his own grandfather's 'Narrative,' shows to what patient drudgery Byron could sometimes submit." Mr. Collins adds still more to Mr. Coleridge's notes on this part of the poem to illustrate Byron's indebtedness, and adds: "It would indeed be quite impossible to exceed the scrupulous particularity with which, even to the most trifling minutiæ, Byron has drawn on these narratives, owing literally nothing to invention." Drudging industry is a characteristic which was wholly alien to Arnold's famous portrait of Byron, and his essay loses much of its value in view of the notes of Prothero and Coleridge. This is a fact which Mr. Collins does not point out, but it will occur to any of his readers who may be familiar with Arnold's preface.

We may carry the comparison of Arnold and Collins still further. The former places Shelley's poetry far below Byron's, and thought that the "'Essays and Letters' of Shelley would finally come to stand higher than his poetry." But the estimate of Mr. Collins allows Byron no ear, no "music in his soul," no repose, harmony, balance, or measure. He explains Goethe's extravagant praise, which ranked Byron next to Shakspere, as partly due to the fact that Byron appealed to Europe rather than to England; "he is the laureate of the scenery of the Continent, the rhapsodist of its traditions, the student and painter of almost every phase of its many-sided life," while his flaws and limitations are not so likely to be detected by readers not of his own nation. And he is not to be placed, as Arnold placed him, in the first rank of English poets; at least five names must precede his, and that Arnold would never have admitted.

Mr. Collins devotes two essays to a panegyric of Mr. William Watson and the late Gerald Massey. The former is a poet whom all esteem, but few read—*laudatur et alget*. He has never taken hold on the English public, you never hear a single verse of his poetry quoted, and we doubt whether, in spite of Mr. Collins, this state of things will change and Mr. Watson receive due recognition. Mr. Collins thinks that there are "more elements of permanence in Watson's poems than in those of any of his present contemporaries." He goes on to say that Mr. Swinburne will have more to fear from sifting time. But, for all his "enthusiasm without wisdom and æstheticism without ethics and spirituality," Swinburne is *known*. His verses haunt men's ears and refuse to be forgotten. The highly respected Mr. Watson is a name. We defy any half-dozen general readers in any company to quote off-hand six verses from his poems. The gift of making people read your poetry and desire not to forget it, has never been his.

Gerald Massey is another mediocre poet, of golden mediocrity, no doubt, but one whom no praise, however judicious, can resuscitate, because in his own day his poetry never truly lived. He was the son of a canal boatman, and his childhood was spent in grinding poverty, first as a child slave in a factory, then, in the early forties, as an errand boy in the streets of London. He is perhaps best known today as the original of 'Felix Holt.' He became a Chartist editor and poet, and for the rest of his struggling life managed to exist by his pen. Landor discovered his merits more than half a century ago, but even his enthusiastic praise did not convince the English reader that here was poetry he could not do without. Miss Hain Friswell, in her 'In the Sixties and Seventies,' which has just appeared, gives an interesting portrait of poor Massey, whose daughter was her schoolfellow. Mrs. Massey was a clairvoyant, and went through life in a sort of trance, led about by her husband, who treated her as a child. The whole scene, as Miss Friswell describes the visit of the Masseys to her school, is most pathetic, and reveals a side of Massey omitted from Mr. Collins's study.

The sixth essay, on 'Longinus and Greek Criticism,' is a valuable contribution to the study of Longinus, and should be in a collection of classical studies such as will no doubt one day be made from the writings of Mr. Collins. He goes thoroughly into the question of the authorship of the 'On the Sublime,' and thus supplies a distinct lack in the edition of Prof. Rhys Roberts. The world of classical philology lost much when Mr. Collins diverted his great critical gifts and knowledge of the classics to the field of general criticism. He belongs to the vanishing race of scholarly critics who reject all purely æsthetic criticism as waste of words, and insist always, as Arnold insisted, on some principle that shall lift literary criticism out of the regions of vague chatter to the level of philosophic work.

Impeccable in scholarship, Mr. Collins has not in this volume avoided one or two minor slips of style, probably due to careless proof-reading. On page 120 we find cacophanies for cacophonies; page 230, Gorgias of Leontium for Leontini; page 224, "the last century A. D.," a date that has not yet been reached, is assigned as the period of the composition of the 'On the Sublime'; on page 133 we find a rare thing with Mr. Collins, a sentence that defies grammatical analysis: "As fastidious an artist as Petrarch and Milton, as Gray and Tennyson, it might have been expected that much of what is familiar to us in the old texts would disappear." This seems to be a horrible case of the nominative absolute.

MUSICAL BIOGRAPHIES AND OTHER BOOKS.

Brahms. By J. Lawrence Erb. E. P. Dutton & Co.

The Life of Johannes Brahms. By Florence May. In two volumes. London: Edward Arnold.

Theodor Leschetizky. By Annette Hullah. John Lane.

Life and Letters of Chopin. By Moritz Karasowski. Scribners.

The Story of Organ Music. By C. F. Abdy Williams. Scribners.

College Songs. Compiled by H. R. Waite. Oliver Ditson Co.

Twenty Songs by Stephen C. Foster. Oliver Ditson Co.

Deutsches Liederbuch für Amerikanische Studenten. Boston: D. C. Heath Co.

Biographies of Brahms are in vogue; three of them have appeared within the last few months. The most useful of these, for the general reader, is Erb's, which contains within less than two hundred pages an excellent résumé of the important facts in the composer's career, the genesis of his works, and critical opinions for and against them; nor does the author omit the best anecdotes illustrating his hero's wit—a rather caustic wit for the most part, it must be admitted. For summer reading nothing could be better than this book.

Much more elaborate, yet no less edifying, is Florence May's biography of the same master. It gains much in interest from the fact that the writer was for a considerable time a pupil of Brahms, and is, therefore, able to describe him at first hand. Her personal recollections take up the first forty-four pages of Volume I. She declares that, after a few weeks of work with him, her hands had completely changed, having lost their angular appearance, while the knuckles seemed to be disappearing. She had many opportunities to hear Brahms himself play. He was particularly fond of Schubert, whose longest pieces he found none too long; and Bach, whose music he did not believe should be played in a simply flowing style. "In the movements of the suites he liked variety of tone and touch, as well as a certain elasticity of tempo," and in suspensions he gave the fullest possible effect to the dissonance. In playing the other old masters —Scarlatti, Mozart, etc.—also, he "did not hesitate to avail himself of such resources of the modern pianoforte as he felt helped impart" the true spirit. Sometimes he played enchantingly, on other days quite the reverse; and, as years went by, his touch became hard and his technique insufficient. His disposition, too, became rougher. While the writer always found him kind and simple, "his manners were described with unanimity, by those not within his immediate circle, as difficult, sarcastic, and arrogant." He abhorred Berlioz, Liszt, and most of the modern masters, but not Wagner. For him "he had a respect amounting almost to veneration." He had studied his scores exhaustively, and used to call himself "the best of all Wagnerians." For readers of Max Kalbeck's 'Life of Brahms' there is not much that is entirely new in the bulk of Miss May's pages; but, pending the translation of that exhaustive work, American admirers will find here the most complete accessible depository of Brahms lore.

Theodor Leschetizky is the subject of the latest volume in the "Living Masters of Music" series. He is one of the "grand old men" in music, having been born seventy-six years ago; sixty-two years ago he began to teach, and teaching is still his daily occupation. He has long been the most popular piano teacher in Europe, and the "Leschetizky method" is a daily topic of conversation among musicians. Our author devotes a chapter to it, although she admits that "to describe a pianoforte method by the pen does as much good to the pianist as the 'Absent Treatment' of a Christian Scientist does to his patient." Example is what is needed: "Nearly everyone can do something well if told exactly what to do." Nothing gives Leschetizky greater satisfaction than to find the remedy for some unusual defect. In the chapters

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on "The Lessons" and "The Class," there is much to interest and benefit all students of the piano. For them, indeed, no book more attractive and helpful has been issued since Miss Amy Fay's 'Music Study in Germany.' Like that, also, it is full of anecdotes and personal touches. One of the illustrations is a group of Leschetizky pupils, among whom is one of the daughters of Mark Twain.

Before the appearance of Niecks's Life of Chopin, the most elaborate work on this composer was that by his countryman, Karasowski, which appeared in 1877, and was soon followed by a second, revised and augmented, edition. An English translation, by Emily Hill, based on this second edition, appeared in 1879; it has been out of print for some time, and the new edition will therefore be welcomed by lovers of the greatest of the pianoforte composers. It contains many letters of Chopin, and is eminently readable.

Three years ago, 'The Story of the Organ,' by Abdy Williams, was issued. The same author now adds one equally admirable complementary volume, on organ music, which cannot be commended too highly to all organists. It is the product of a scholar who knows how to write clearly, and an expert who is bubbling over with information. Italian organ music receives attention first, and France, Spain, and England obtain their share; but Germany is naturally treated at greatest length, the author being convinced that "the history of organ music all revolves round one gigantic personality, J. S. Bach; for the earlier compositions of Italy, Germany, and England seem almost to have only existed in order to make his possible, and since him no organ composer of any eminence has existed who has not been largely influenced by him."

Many others besides students will welcome the new and enlarged edition of Mr. Waite's 'College Songs,' which is one of the best in the market. Equally welcome to thousands will be the collection of Foster's best songs—which are more and more being regarded as true American folksongs, equal to any that Europe can boast. If Foster's harmonic sense had been as keen as his melodic gift, America might have had its Schubert long ago. The editor has revised the accompaniments to adapt them to the modern pianoforte. The songs contained in the 'Deutsches Liederbuch' were compiled from the best German sources, with good judgment. It is intended to be a happy mean between a 'Volksliederbuch' and a 'Commersbuch.' From German collections of student songs, the present one differs in that, of the 95 songs included, no fewer than 73 are arranged for mixed chorus, in view of the fact that most Western colleges are coeducational.

Ancient Legends of Roman History. By Ettore Pais. Translated by Mario E. Cosenza. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1905.

The discovery of very early remains in the Roman Forum, linked in a remarkable way with stories of old Rome handed down by such writers as Varro and Dionysius, has started afresh the slumbering controversy as to the authenticity of early Roman history. On the one side stand those who carry Roman history back into the days of the kings, and who believe that there is a basis of historical fact for the familiar legends. On the other side is the critical school tracing its lineage to Lorenzo Valla and Beaufort, recalling Niebuhr and his folklore theory, Schwegler with his ætiological myths, and in recent days Mommsen, finding in these discredited stories elements of a constitutional character which he accepts as reliable. A mistaken idea as to patriotism has for many years led to the falsification of Roman history. Livy found with disgust that the ancient annalists were unreliable. Ligorio and Pratilli dishonored Campanian epigraphy by their forgeries. In Italy to-day political ambition and personal aims and interests interfere with the complete and scientific study of the remarkable discoveries of recent years. Ignorance and dishonesty offer inaccuracies and misrepresentations to the learned world. We are pleased to find among Italian scholars an earnest champion of the truth. Prof. Ettore Pais was trained under German influence, was a pupil and intimate friend of Mommsen, and, being a thorough scholar possessing a love for truth which rises superior to his affection for his native land, he has become a leader in the critical school of Roman historians. We are already indebted to him for his 'Storia di Roma,' which has done much to dispel the mists of romance and tradition. He has, however, aroused violent antagonism among those of his countrymen whose stock in trade he has so ruthlessly destroyed. He has, therefore, turned to other countries for sympathy, and, because of the warm welcome he received in America, he has written the volume we are considering, "under the shadow of the great universities" which he visited, and offers it to the English-speaking public through the translation of his young compatriot, Mario E. Cosenza, an instructor in the College of the City of New York.

In this work we find a collection of essays, many of which examine with keenest criticism such legends as those of the Horatii, the maid Tarpeia, Lucretia and Virginia. There are two introductory chapters, one devoted to the critical method to be pursued in the study of ancient Roman history, another on the importance, for most ancient Roman history, of the excavations in the Roman Forum. One chapter is assigned to the topography of the earliest Rome, and there are six brief excursus on subjects bearing on topography and on the legendary history of the city. In his consideration of the topographic discoveries in the Roman Forum, Professor Pais aims to prove that they do not date back to the very early period to which the opponents of critical studies would assign them. But what does Professor Pais think of the archaic inscription and the monument under the black stone? Believing that the fragmentary word Sora stands for Soranus, a god of the dead; he claims that the inscription is a record of ceremonies in honor of the dead and under the direction of the *rex sacrorum*. The fact that a large part of the Forum valley has been shown to be a great cemetery, is strongly in favor of this view. Because of the location of the stele on a stratum later than the Gallic fire, and the uncertain testimony of the palæography of the inscription, it is impossible to decide whether the stone is of the sixth or of the fourth century. He follows Studniczka's theory as to the monument, and dates it in the period between the fifth and second century.

In the various essays on the legends, Professor Pais sets forth the results of his examination of the numerous different versions which demand critical study. This criticism is not negative:

"To trace the various discordant passages of the ancient authors, to investigate the causes of the formation of the different versions, and to ascertain which version is more ancient and which the more recent—such criticism is constructive, for it discovers the persons and facts which give vigor to the ancient traditions. It reproduces the general atmosphere that gave rise to such inventions, and reconstructs the history of the era which gave them birth. Finally, it explains the conception of the ancients regarding their own primitive history—the history which they had built up and narrated."

In such a spirit Professor Pais investigates a number of the legends closely associated with Roman history and topography, and, as a skilful yet unsparing surgeon, he cuts cleverly and deeply, looking for reliable facts on which to build his new structure. As a result of this study he forms the fundamental theory that Roman history appears as an adult organism from the very origin of the city, because of the influence of Hellenistic civilization. Roman historiography mirrored the rhetorical historiography and the historical epos of the Greeks. Hence it is the Greek influence which we must emphasize, for the Greeks were the first narrators of Roman fortunes, and they participated in the compilation of the Roman national history.

"The study of the most ancient Roman legends proves that they are, more or less, imitations of similar Hellenic stories, well known to the Greeks who first narrated the history of the Latin city. It is, then, very possible that in speaking of Tarpeia—the personification of the hill whence the guilty were hurled—they localized upon the Capitol one of the many myths of women who failed in their loyalty to their country. . . . The various elements of such legends spring from the force of circumstances which differ much among themselves. They may spring from some topographical data, or from data offered by monuments, and, as in the case of Tarpeia, those of the Tarpeian Rock and of the Porta Pandana. They may arise from etymological reasons; or, finally, from the mere reproduction of an element borrowed from some other legend."

This critical analysis of the versions of legendary history, and the recognition of the great importance of the Greek civilization in Roman story and history, will find acceptance even though the deductions made by Professor Pais may not be generally approved.

An excellent illustration of the application of our author's theories is seen in his essay on Servius Tullius. Here he reiterates his view that the last three kings of Rome are quite as legendary as Romulus and Numa. The partiality of Roman tradition, which endeavored to show that Rome was mistress of Latium even in the kingly period, and the recording of narratives of Roman history by Greek writers as early as the fourth century, have absolutely destroyed the value of the history of this time. The domination of the Etruscans is turned into a story of friendly and hospitable relations through the Tarquins. Hence King Tarquin is a misty figure, represent-

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ing the actual domination of the Etruscans over Latium. Servius is a Latin conception belonging to a solar cult, and associated with a group of legends to which belong Virbius of Aricia, and Hippolytus, Pelops, and Hippodamia.

All this is very alluring and most interesting, but it is not always convincing. In fact, Professor Pais's own teaching would lead us to view with incredulity many of his theories. Moreover, his style is not such as to attract the general reader or even to detain the scholar, for it is very involved, and is lacking in logical sequence; which tends to make a difficult subject still more difficult by reason of the ambiguity. The translation is very well done, although the paragraphing is often bad. There is little to suggest the mere transfer of Italian phraseology into English. On page 25 "semi-uncial" is contrasted with "Latin writing," where the evident intention is to refer to half-uncials and capitals. On page 142, the sentence, "Another divinity was still more intimately connected with Diana Aricina—namely the *Nemus*, that is, the grove of Aricia," is unintelligible. Probably Virbius is the divinity thought of. We note also *viscus* for *vicus* (p. 17), *Camesa* for *Cameses* or *Camesene* (p. 143), *finestra* for *fenestra* (p. 149), *memorensis* for *nemorensis* (p. 144), *cyclops* "were" for "was" (p. 158), *Sanherib* for *Sennacherib* (p. 162), *examing* (p. 163), *word* for *work* (p. 226), and *Palatuar* for *Palatium* (p. 226). The book closes with sixty pages of notes in fine print which serve as valuable corroboration of the statements in the text. The index, which is indispensable in a work of this kind, has been omitted.

The Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence, May 20, 1775, and Lives of its Signers. By George W. Graham. New York: Neale. 1905.

The periodic revival of discussion of the Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence is once more upon us, and the zeal of the advocates on either side of the question has been quickened by the appearance of a clever forgery, somewhat stupidly put upon the market, and therefore denounced before disposed of at a high price. In his book Dr. Graham claims to present new evidence in favor of a Declaration. This evidence is (1) a poem, dated 1777, called the "Mecklenburg Censor," in which mention is made of a "rabble":

> "In congress, they, the very first,
> Their independence to declare."

(2) a child born twelve years after the alleged Declaration and called "my Independence Boy"; (3) deeds for land which date from 1775 and not from 1776 as the year of independence; (4) a schoolboy's declamation in 1809, mentioning the Declaration, and (5) a discussion of how Martin and Gardner obtained their information of the paper. Dr. Graham believes that the resolves dated May 31, which have been accepted by historians, were adopted May 20, and were additional and supplementary to a true Declaration of Independence.

However interesting as a discussion of authorities this plea in favor of a Declaration may be, it does not carry conviction. Because Martin and Gardner associated with men who were present at a convention in Mecklenburg in May, is no reason why they should have discussed the matter with them or obtained original material. The resolves of May 31 suspended all royal commissions as null and void, and placed all legislation and executive powers in the Provincial Congress. This was in some degree a declaration of independence, and the reference in the "Censor" and in the schoolboy's oration could apply as easily to these sections as to a separate and distinct Declaration. Further, the schoolboy was a pupil of the Rev. Dr. Caldwell, who married the daughter of John McKnitt Alexander, secretary to the meeting, and had thus been under the influence of one interested in maintaining the existence of a Declaration. The fact that the resolves of May 31 were widely copied, while the more noticeable Declaration has left no trace in contemporary newspapers, is a difficult point against the passage of the latter, and is not to be lightly solved by general assertions. Nor does Dr. Graham's mode of treatment inspire confidence, for under his hands a supposition soon becomes a certainty. Martin, at the end of his chapter on the Declaration, gives as his authorities, "Records, magazines, gazettes." Martin told Dr. Hawks he had found a copy of the Declaration in the western part of the State prior to 1800. To this statement Dr. Graham adds: "Whether it was a manuscript or newspaper copy is not stated, but probably the latter." A few pages later, our author states positively that Martin had read the *Cape Fear Mercury* of June, 1775!

This *Cape Fear Mercury* is not known to exist in any collection; but it is entirely gratuitous to suppose that a copy was abstracted from the British records by Andrew Stevenson, when minister plenipotentiary at the Court of St. James. There is nothing in his official correspondence to show that he had made any discovery on so important a question, and to justify belief that in 1837 the followers of Jefferson were so jealous of his fame that they would employ Stevenson to destroy evidence of an early Mecklenburg Declaration. It would be much more to the point to discuss contemporary records, which have not yet been entirely exhausted.

For instance, why did it require only twelve days for the news of Lexington to reach Williamsburg, Va., and nearly twenty-one days to go further south and west to Mecklenburg, N. C.? Yet the news is said to have reached Mecklenburg while the convention was sitting, and led to the framing of the Declaration. Then, too, the supporters of the Declaration say that four copies of this important paper were sent by special messenger to the Continental Congress, and the receipt was acknowledged and encouragement given by Hancock and by a joint letter of the Carolina delegates. Yet the letter-book of John Hancock does not show any such letter, the joint letter has never been traced, and the two men in Congress most interested in obtaining every support for independence, Adams and Jefferson, had never seen or heard of the Declaration until it was first printed in 1819. Jefferson believed it to be a forgery, and in an unpublished letter to him Adams echoed his opinion:

"It appeared to me utterly incredible that they should be genuine; but there were so many circumstances calculated to impose on the public that I thought it my duty to take measures for the detection of the imposture. For this purpose I instantly inclosed the *Essex Register* to you, knowing that if you had either seen or heard of these resolutions, you would have informed me of it. As they are unknown to you, they must have been unknown to all mankind. . . . But who can be the Demon to invent such a machine after five and forty years, and what could be his motive? Was it to bring a charge of Plagiarism against the Congress in '76, or against you, the undoubted acknowledged draughtsman of the Declaration of Independence? Or could it be the mere vanity of producing a *jeu d'esprit*, to set the world agasp and afford a topic of conversation in this piping time of Peace? Had such Resolutions appeared in June '75, they would have flown through the Universe like wildfire; they would have elevated the heads of the inhabitants of Boston, and of all New England, above the stars, and they would have rung a peal in Congress to the utter confusion of Toryism and timidity, for a full year before they were discomforted [discomfited?]."

And a few days later he again wrote:

"If these resolutions were genuine, they ought to be published in every Gazette in the world. If they are one of those tricks which our fashionable men in England call hoaxes and boares, they ought to be printed in all American journals, exposed to public resentment, and the author of them hunted to his dark Cavern. For although you and I should as easily believe that a flaming Brand might be thrust into a Magazine of Powder without producing an explosion, as that those Resolutions could have passed in 1775, and not been known to any Member of Congress in 1776; and if they were not known to you, as I am very sure they were not, it is impossible they could have been known to any other Member."

The absence of any record in the journals of the Congress of their receipt is not conclusive, as Thomson had not yet perfected his method of noting papers and reports coming to the Congress. We may therefore accept the tradition that Captain Jack was sent to Philadelphia. It does not follow, however, that he was the bearer of a Declaration or even of the resolutions of May 31, and it is surprising that attention has not been called to an entry in the Journals of June 26, of resolutions on the State of North Carolina, recommending the good people of the colony to associate, establish a militia, and support the "American Association." In the original Journal the entry does not show that it was on North Carolina, and the corrected Journal supplies that information. This action must have been suggested from North Carolina; and as Congress had been for days sitting as a committee of the whole on the state of America, the delay in adopting the resolves has no significance. Could not Jack have brought this suggestion, and in after time his journey have become associated with the alleged Declaration? Could not Jack have taken back to North Carolina the joint letter, dated June 19, of the delegates of that colony in the Continental Congress, urging the people to greater exertions and to embody a militia? And would not Hancock have transmitted the Congress resolves of the 26th in a letter? These are quite as reasonable suppositions as those put forward by Dr. Graham, and answer to known dates and circumstances more definitely and satisfactorily.

Congress of Arts and Sciences, Universal Exposition, St. Louis, 1904. Edited by How-

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ard J. Rogers, Director of Congresses. Volume I.: History of the Congress, by the Editor; Scientific Plan of the Congress, by Hugo Münsterberg. (Philosophy and Mathematics.) Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905. 8vo, pp. 627.

In every future history of the human mind the signal success of the St. Louis Congress must be commemorated. Justly to distribute the credit for it would probably be impossible at present. We certainly shall not attempt such a task. Speaking in the rough, as men usually speak of the credit for great achievements, the idea was the creation of Professor Münsterberg, and it was a creation such as few men are privileged ever to make. The history of its evolution will be found narrated in this volume as minutely as possible by Mr. Rogers, while the plan is explained by Professor Münsterberg. This first volume contains twenty-five papers read to the philosophical and mathematical sections of the Congress by some of the men of all the world whose words on such subjects best commend themselves to our attention.

The introductory address, by Professor Newcomb, is very properly a blend between an ordinary presidential address and an oration, and is very accurately in taste. Custom calls for the suggestion of a scientific idea in a presidential address, and an idea of wide scientific appeal. If Professor Newcomb had a hundred such jotted down in his note-book, he could not have selected one of more pressing importance or of more evident truth than the idea he chose, while in its whole philosophical scope it has certainly been treated hitherto with something like disdain; so that those who for many years have been preaching its salutary effects and consequences must be gratified to find their idol taken up by a man so prominent in the world of science as Professor Newcomb. The idea is, that while it may be true that all evolution, be it physiological or physical, intellectual or spiritual, individual or social, proceeds without any strict breach of continuity, yet it is universally found that in every development there are at least two extraordinary leaps. Professor Newcomb only mentions one, which he illustrates in the launching of a ship; but we venture to point out that the laying of the keel is another such great step. So in the development of an individual animal, one step takes place when the unit-cells of two progenitors uniting, a third life suddenly appears, while another step takes place when the new being is launched and breaks its way into the element it is to inhabit. Now the evolutionists never cease to tell us that we are to look at the life-history of the individual to find there a miniature record of the past history of its race. If this be so, the logic of science commands us to begin with the hypothesis that there have been at least two cataclasmic epochs in the development of the race, and forbids us to surrender this hypothesis until inductive inquiry has fairly ascertained its truth or falsity. There is a natural presumption in favor of something like the doctrine of universal continuity, but upon uniformitarianism, which goes further, there lies a heavy burden of proof.

We can here mention only one or two among at least a dozen strikingly instructive papers that the reader will want to ponder long before he will have sucked their juice. It is a curious classification which adds mathematics to the usual list of normative sciences, æsthetics, ethics, and logic; and since a reviewer's *métier* is infallibility, we will curtly say that it is a confusion of thought to class mathematics with the *theory* of reasoning simply because its business is to say what conclusion would necessarily follow from each given assumed premiss or premisses. One of the most interesting communications in the volume is a discussion of the definition of mathematics, by Professor Bôcher of Harvard University. Like all others who have discussed the question, he seems to have quite overlooked a definition which one would think would have been insured against neglect by being embedded in one of the most famous of all philosophical writings. We refer to the definition of mathematics as the science of order. It is Descartes who puts it forth. He, indeed, says "measure and order"; but it has been for many years well known that quantity *is* nothing but ordinal sequence. We mean that this is well known to those who are versed in the subject, but not that it is well known to all those who ought for their own sakes to understand it; nor that it is well known to the whole indolent breed who call themselves "thinkers."

But, to return to the juxtaposition here of philosophy and of mathematics, the comparison that it compels between the general state of intellectual development of the two groups of students is one of the most impressive lessons of the whole volume. Yet mathematics is not as well represented in the volume as is philosophy; and particularly the expression of all that semi-logical department of mathematics which keenly interests every variety of pure intellect is, excepting in Bôcher's paper, distinctly weak. In applied mathematics, Boltzmann and Poincaré continued at St. Louis a controversy—a very uncontroversial controversy, it is true—which was not really of a mathematical nature and which had been quite exhausted, as far as they were concerned, years before. The subject should lie fallow until some new point of view is found.

A congenital defect of such a congress, in the province of philosophy at any rate, is that the principal speakers must be very few. At St. Louis there were two only for each section. To select the best two, the selector should add to a superhuman insight an absolutely complete and thorough acquaintance with all the young philosophists. For it must be the young men, if any, who are to open our eyes. Their elders have been tried and found wanting. The selection that naturally gets made is that of the men who, in the later of the previous years, have put forth the most prepotent ideas. But it is just these men that we have no need of hearing. The old tune is still running in their heads; they will harp on the one old string. The man who in silence and obscurity has been creating some strange, beautiful, and illuminating conception is the man from whom we desire to hear, but from whom there is little chance of hearing in such a congress. Some of the old leaders, and some only, express themselves in this volume; together with a few who, if not old leaders, have recently so expressed themselves that all philosophists would know what they had to say. The truth is, that the personal *rencontres* were of liveliest interest, but the record of what was said is considerably less so.

Geology: Earth History, Vols. II. & III. By T. C. Chamberlin and R. D. Salisbury, Professors of Geology and Geography at the University of Chicago. Henry Holt & Co. 1906.

That geology is not yet an exact science, and that many of the commonly accepted views of the earth's history rest in the last analysis upon undemonstrated assumptions, is emphasized in a striking manner in the above work. Contrary to the plan of other text-books on the same subject, marked attention is paid to the hypotheses of the origin and early phases of the earth, and several alternative views are discussed in considerable detail. For a number of years past, Professor Chamberlin's studies have led him to consider these fundamental problems connected with the origin of the earth, and have convinced him that neither the commonly accepted Nebular Hypothesis of Laplace nor the Meteoric Hypothesis of Lockyer and Darwin can possibly meet the demands that later discoveries put upon them. For example, these hypotheses presuppose an original crust with somewhat definite chemical and physical characteristics, such as no great basal formations are now known to possess. Indeed, recent studies in Canada, the United States, Great Britain, Scandinavia, and Finland have demonstrated that great granitoid areas of the Archæan rocks, which were previously supposed to be a part of that crust, were intrusive, and that they had been forced into rocks which were formed on the surface at a period much later than the original crust. Professor Chamberlin has been led, therefore, to develop the "planetesimal hypothesis," in which "it is assumed that the parent Nebula of the solar system was formed of innumerable small bodies, planetesimals, revolving about a central gaseous mass, much as do the planets today." He finds in the numerous spiral nebulæ, with coiled arms or streamers, with luminous centres and knots of light on the streamers, and which present a *continuous* spectrum, some reason for assuming that such planetesimal systems exist in great numbers. By this hypothesis, "the evolution of the system consisted in the aggregation of these innumerable small bodies into much fewer larger ones." "The earth is supposed to have started as a nebular knot, acting as a nucleus, and to have grown gradually to its present mass by accessions" of the scattered planetesimal masses.

This hypothesis calls for a relatively slow growth of the earth—cold at first, but with a rising internal temperature developed in the central portion, chiefly through compression, and creeping outward. The young earth is believed to have had no atmosphere until it attained about one-twentieth of its present mass, owing to its inability by the force of gravity to attract and hold to itself the light atmospheric gases against their high molecular velocities, which would carry them off into space. But when the growing earth reached the requisite mass, an atmosphere was gradually accumulated by contributions from the free atmospheric

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molecules which came within range of its attraction, and from the occluded gases which were extruded, probably chiefly by volcanoes, from the earth itself. This conception of the primitive atmosphere is fundamentally different from the orthodox view, which postulates a vast hot and heavy gaseous envelope, containing all the water of the globe, all the carbonic acid now in limestone and that corresponding to the carbon in coal, peat, lignite, and other organic substances, and all the oxygen since shut up in the rocks by oxidation; in direct contradiction, notably, of the discovery of air-breathing animals far back in geologic history and early flying insects with structures incompatible with a heavy atmosphere, to say nothing of positive evidence of widespread glacial conditions in India, Australia, and South Africa on the very border of the tropics towards the close of the Palæozoic period, and in China in latitude 30° N. in the early Palæozoic.

Under the Laplacian hypothesis, the interior heat of the earth is assumed to be mainly residual from its original molten condition, and on this assumption serious limitations have been made by physicists to the age of the earth, based upon the probable initial temperatures and the rate of cooling—limitations which greatly restricted the time exacted by geologists for the earth's subsequent evolution, and by biologists for the beginning and development of life in the pre-Cambrian age. The planetesimal hypothesis meets this objection, and affords an undetermined lapse of time between the stage when conditions congenial to life were first possible, and the Cambrian period when the first fairly legible record was made.

In many respects these new views are nothing short of revolutionary, and although various aspects of the problem have been discussed by Dr. Chamberlin in numerous papers during the last ten years, the first complete statement is made in this work. A consistent effort has been made "to carry through the interpretations of the whole history parallel systems of doctrine built on the diverse hypotheses recognized." Such a treatment, while perhaps at first confusing to the beginner, in reality acts as a stimulant and prevents the unquestioned acceptance of theories on the mere basis of authority and custom. The question of geologic climates, particularly of the glacial climates which in the Cambrian gave rise to glaciers in latitude 30° in China, in the Permian brought about widespread glaciation at low altitudes in India, Australia, and South Africa at the borders of the tropics, and in the Pleistocene covered much of North America and Europe with a series of far advancing and retreating ice sheets with long periods of mild interglacial climate, receives exhaustive discussion. In considering the life of the various geologic periods, exceptional attention has been given to the evolution of faunas and floras and to their migrations, while much less attention has been shown to individual forms, however strange and uncouth they may have been.

Unsolved problems are frankly recognized, and the need of further investigation and revised interpretation freely indicated. Such, besides those already mentioned, are the widespread occurrence of red beds with few faunal remains, the accumulation at certain horizons of extensive beds of rock salt and gypsum; the preservation of great masses of vegetation as in the Carboniferous and Cretaceous, the extraordinary and widespread lava flows and volcanic eruptions of the Tertiary, and the great extent as well as the complex history of the glaciers of the Pleistocene, particularly when contrasted with the genial climate of circumpolar regions in the preceding geologic period.

The question of the antiquity of man in America receives more elaborate attention than is customary in works on geology, and rightly, for in so far as human relics are found imbedded as fossils, the determination of the age of the enclosing formation is essentially geologic. The authors conclude that "no relic found in fluvial material can, with full safety, be referred to an age older than the last stages at which the stream flowed over its surface." Since nearly all the supposed evidence of glacial man has been obtained from gravel deposits which have in every case been reworked, in part at least, since their deposition in the glacial period, the presumption seems to be against his existence, particularly when the absence of authentic evidence from caves, glacial tills, and interglacial deposits is considered. In the present state of knowledge our authors advocate a suspended judgment.

While designed primarily as a textbook for advanced courses in college and graduate schools, many chapters of this treatise invite the attention of the non-professional reader as well as of the scientist. All might do so but for the inherent difficulty of the subject-matter, as, for example, the complicated problems of internal and atmospheric dynamics, rather than because of the authors' method of treatment.

China and Religion. By Edward Harper Parker. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

Mr. Parker must be undoubtedly counted as a Chinese scholar, but his method of composition is peculiar and his literary graces are not very great. He seems to have learned most of his Chinese on foot, for he has been a mighty perambulator in China, meeting with all kinds of people. For all his apology and explanation, which does not explain, of his peculiar list of authorities, the unprejudiced reader, whether acquainted with Mr. Parker's five or six other volumes or not, would be very glad if, in his list of fifty or so monographs or papers, there were not quite so many as twelve or fifteen signed by E. H. Parker. Despite his unappreciative reference to mere "translators and opinionists," one would not have objected to more references to and quotations from such men as Dr. Legge, and to such scholars as Groot. Still, one must be thankful for this study of the elements which make up religion as it is known in China, for, on the whole, it is cool, clear, impartial. Mr. Parker sets forth with unique illustration and fulness the relation of the Chinese Government, or political system, not only to the primitive traditions and ceremonies and the three systems of Laocius (Lao-tse), Confucius, and Buddha, but to Parseeism, Manicheism, Nestorianism, Islam, the Jews, the Roman Church, Protestantism, the Orthodox (Græco-Russian) Church, and Shintoism.

One cannot feel, after reading the book through, that he has found in it any notable accretion of knowledge, or been greatly aided in insight. The author is particularly strong and felicitous in restoring the features and figures of Lao-tse and of Confucius, and in showing the points of likeness and difference in their personalities and systems. The one is set forth as "the rugged, radical denouncer, of the Jeremiah or Carlyle type"; the other as "the man of comfort, order, reverence, and courtliness." Mr. Parker's critical knowledge of the age of documents is excellent, and he understands well how to appraise modern manifestations of ancient ideas. He writes:

"The degenerate but harmless priests seen nowadays in the Chinese towns and villages no more represent the noble abstractions of Laocius than the negro beanfeasters in America or the dancing revivalists in London depict the simple charity and democracy of Jesus Christ; yet in both cases there is a pedigree, and the charitable may admit an honest attempt to do well according to dwindled lights."

The horse-riding peoples between China and Western countries and civilizations were the chief purveyors of ideas, ritual, scriptures, and influences modifying the original bald system of rites, which even Mr. Parker calls a "religion" only in brackets. One could wish that instead of furnishing, as he has done, little more than raw materials, however abundant, he could have shown in orderly sequence the evolution of primitive rites and ceremonies into the highly philosophical system, through the conditioning influences of these outside religions. Undoubtedly Buddhism is still the faith held by the unthinking masses, while Confucianism is the creed of the scholars; yet it is doubtful whether The Sage, could he return to China to-day, would recognize his own system any more than could Jesus discern in European or American popular Christianity his own teachings and simple principles. Nor is it at all probable that the medley of pantheism in the modern beliefs associated with the name of Confucius could ever have become what it is except for the doctrines imported from India. One of Mr. Parker's best chapters treats of Nestorianism, giving also a fine reproduction of the Nestorian stone, with Syriac inscription at the foot. Although translations of the text differ, it is plain that the Christianity introduced into China in the eighth century was not that of the Greek or Roman corporation of to-day. "No stress is laid upon damnation, the sacraments, confession, repentance, the sanctity of marriage rites, the Immaculate Conception, the Crucifixion, Passion, Resurrection, life everlasting, and many things inseparable from the belief of most of the Christians of the present day."

The story of the Chinese, Jews, and Mohammedans is brought down to our time, and there is an original translation of the 'Tao-teh King,' one of the best things in the book; for Mr. Parker's phraseology makes it clear that Laocius and Confucius drew their ideas from extremely ancient books that inspired both, so that virtually the one gives the speculative, the other the materialistic expression of the same simple rule of gratitude to Heaven.

The illustrations, both literary and his-

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torical, concern not only Chinese, but also Japanese, Korean, and Burman architecture, and are full-page reproductions of photographs. There is a full index.

More Famous Houses of Bath and District; being the Second Series of that work. By J. F. Meehan, with an introduction by Egerton Castle, M.A., F.S.A., illustrated with about fifty reproductions of original drawings and rare prints in the possession of the Author. Bath: B. & J. F. Meehan. 1906. Pp. xvi., 248.

Four years ago we noticed the forerunner of the above volume. The houses now discussed are numerous, perhaps thirty, although the presence of chapters which are not primarily associated with any house whatever, and which deal exclusively with a local tradition or a local celebrity, makes an accurate count very difficult. In a plate opposite page 180 appears the building in which are the Assembly Rooms made famous by Mr. Pickwick's visit. The Bishop's Palace at Wells is shown in the photograph of what must be a very valuable print, dated 1733. It is as faithfully topographical as the work of Hollar, though far less attractive. Marston House is copied from a print of about the same epoch, but it is less interesting, the matter which excites the student being the placing of the village church in a little paddock at the very door of the park rather than anything in the architecture of either. Cold Ashton Manor House is an Elizabethan mansion "from an original drawing by H. V. Lansdown." Newton Park is a square mansion of no great size, in the smiling English park which gives it its name. Wick, or Wycke, called also Wycke Court, is declared to be in wonderful preservation, having been cared for and saved from injury and renovation alike, but the picture has no attractiveness whatever except to trace the plan of the garden set close about the house like a formal centre to the irregular park grounds. Two or three picturesque ruins also are included, such as that of Farlegh or Farley Castle, which is shown with its modern house close adjoining it, from a print dated 1733, and Nunney Castle (called also Nunye Castle) from a print of the same date.

Among the local illustrations are scattered many portraits, as of John Arthur Roebuck, the famous M.P. of the mid-nineteenth century; Robert Southey, Gen. Wolfe "of Quebec," and several persons whose celebrity is less impressive to-day than the fame of their portrayers, Gainsborough, or Allan Ramsay. The curious portrait of Lord Nelson in his youth, attributed to Gainsborough, is contrasted with an old print of the man in his maturity, covered with orders and without his right arm. But the subject which will most attract American readers, perhaps, is that of Major André. There is a long record of André's life and the strange conditions in which he became so famous; and there are anecdotes here which we have not seen elsewhere, both credible and incredible, accompanied by the statement, a little odd to the American reader, that "André's story is the one overmastering romance of the Revolution."

No student of architectural art need approach this book; but there is one bit of architecture, at least, which any one might be glad to possess, the curious gateway of Bellott's Hospital, with its very rich armorial adornment above the doorway itself.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Poems, 1776-1900. Edited by Augustus W. Long. American Book Co.
Barr, Robert. A Rock in the Baltic. The Authors and Newspapers' Association.
Carpenter, Edward. Days with Walt Whitman. Macmillan. $1.50.
Denis, Ernest. La Fondation de l'Empire Allemand. Paris: Armand Colin.
Duke, Basil W. Morgan's Cavalry. Neale Publishing Co. $2.
Early Western Travels. Edited by Reuben G. Thwaites. Vol. XXI. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co.
Friend of Marie Antoinette, A. Translated by Frédéric Barbey. Dutton. $3 net.
Girl Graduate, The. Designed and Illustrated by Louise Perrett and Sarah K. Smith. Chicago: The Reilly & Britton Co. $1.50.
Gould, Gerald. Lyrics. London: David Nutt.
Hall, Clare H. The Chemistry of Paints and Paint Vehicles. D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.
Hallock, Charles. Luminous Bodies Here and After. The Metaphysical Publishing Co.
Jenks, Jeremiah W. Citizenship and the Schools. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25 net.
Johnson, Rossiter. The Story of the Constitution of the United States. William Ritchie.
Kennard, Joseph Spencer. Italian Romance Writers. Brentanos.
King's English, The. Fowde. 5s. net.
Kingsley, Florence Morse. The Intellectual Miss Lamb. Century Co. 75 cents.
Lounsbery, G. Constant. Love's Treatment. John Lane Co.
Masefield, John. On the Spanish Main. Macmillan Co. $3.50.
Meyer's Konversations Lexikon. Vol. 13. Lemcke & Buechner.
Nolhac, Pierre de. Marie Antoinette. London: Arthur L. Humphreys.
Official Records of the Union and Confederate Navies in the War of the Rebellion. Series I., Vol. 20. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Poole, Ernest. The Voice of the Street. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.50.
Root, Edward Clary. Huntington, Jr. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Saltus, Edgar. Imperial Purple. Mitchell Kennerley.
Saltus, Edgar. Vanity Square. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Turner, F. H. Beside the New-Made Grave. Boston: James H. West Co. $1 net.
Venable, William Mayo. Garbage Crematories in America. John Wiley & Sons.
Wright, Carroll D. The Battles of Labor. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $1 net.

NEW BOOKS ON PUBLIC QUESTIONS

Haynes's The Election of Senators $1.50.*

Hall's Immigration $1.50.*

Jenk's Citizenship and the Schools $1.25.*

Merriam's The Negro and the Nation $1.75.*

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